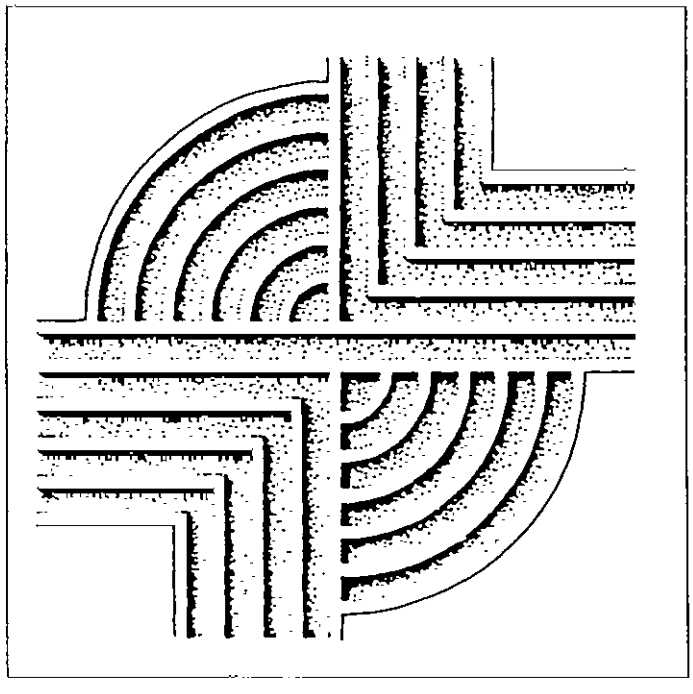
AN ARCHAEOLOGICAL AND HISTORICAL RECONNAISSANCE OF ENCAMPMENT PLANTATION, CHARLESTON COUNTY, SOUTH CAROLINA



CHICORA RESEARCH CONTRIBUTION 175

AN ARCHAEOLOGICAL AND HISTORICAL RECONNAISSANCE OF ENCAMPMENT PLANTATION, CHARLESTON COUNTY, SOUTH CAROLINA

Prepared at the Request of:
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Chicora Research Contribution 175

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ABSTRACT

This study was undertaken for Mr. and Mrs. Russ Pye of Adams Run, South Carolina. It was designed to provide a broad overview of the heritage resources in the immediate vicinity of what is known locally, and historically, as Encampment Plantation, a portion of which is today owned by the Pye's.

Situated in St. Paul's Parish, in what is today lower Charleston County, this tract (and the adjacent Battlefield Plantation) has been peripherally associated with the September 1739 slave revolt known as the Stono Rebellion. Later, Encampment appears to have played a part in General Nathanael Greene's military positions to protect the 1782 Jacksonborough Assembly from the British forces still occupying Charleston. By about 1800 the plantation was apparently acquired by William Hayne, passing to his son, Robert Young Hayne, by 1820. R.Y. Hayne is perhaps most frequently remembered for his strong nullification sentiments and especially for his role in the Webster-Hayne debate on the floor of the United States Senate in 1830. Hayne, however, also served in the South Carolina House, was elected Attorney General, and was elected Governor of South Carolina in 1832. The late antebellum and postbellum history of the tract is poorly understood at present, although there is some indication that the property was involved in the nearly ubiquitous low country phosphate mining efforts during the 1880s. The property most likely participated in tenant cultivation of cotton during the early twentieth century.

The investigation was also designed to provide an overview of the property's archaeological resources. During the study three archaeological sites were identified on the Pye's property. Two additional sites were recorded on adjacent tracts. All of these sites were recorded at the S.C. Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology as 38CH1589, 38CH1590, 38CH1591, 38CH1592, and 38CH1593. These include what appears to be a colonial or early antebellum site, an African American cemetery, a prehistoric and historic site, a late antebellum settlement, and a possible late antebellum slave settlement. Since all of these sites were identified based on a reconnaissance survey it is impossible to thoroughly evaluate their function, temporal periods, or eligibility for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places. Nor can the work conducted by Chicora Foundation be considered appropriate, or sufficient, for compliance with any federal or state historic preservation laws. However, four of the five sites may be tentatively recommended as potentially eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places.

The Pye's tract, which consists largely of high ground, contains a number of resources which are representative of the rich history of the region. Every possible effort should be made to maintain the integrity of this property, as well as the adjacent tracts of land. In particular, it is important to be aware that heritage resources are especially fragile and may be easily damaged or destroyed by a wide range of activities. Although continued agricultural use of the land is not likely to result in any significant additional damage, we recommend against any other ground disturbing activities, such as the excavation of ponds, construction of roads or buildings, or deep plowing (i.e., subsoiling).

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INTRODUCTION

Project Background

On October 2, 1995 Chicora Foundation, Inc. was requested by Mr. and Mrs. Russ Pye to prepare an archaeological and historical overview of Encampment Plantation, focusing on their portion of this larger tract. The purpose of the study was to demonstrate the significance of the heritage resources present on and around the tract (see also Trinkley and Adams 1995 for an evaluation of surrounding properties).

We understood that the document would be used in consideration with other materials in appraising the property. Chicora Foundation is not an appraisal organization and is not a member of The Appraisal Institute, The American Society of Appraisers, or The National Association of Independent Fee Appraisers. This study, while hopefully useful in the appraisal of the historic resources on the tract, is not intended to be construed as an appraisal, property valuation, or an endorsement of any nature. In an effort to assist in the appraisal process, we have included as Appendix 1, the National Trust for Historic Preservation publication, *Appraising Historic Properties* by Judith Reynolds.

Goals

The goals of this study and the associated site visit were simple and straight forward. First, we felt it was essential to determine whether archaeological resources were, in fact, present. Although we understood that the S.C. SHPO had identified at least one site on adjacent property, we discovered that no S.C. Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology (SCIAA) archaeological site form had ever been recorded. While an intensive survey was not possible, we could at least record several of the more obvious sites. This would provide some idea of site density and also the types of sites which might be expected.

Our second goal of this visit was to gather sufficient information to allow us to make reasonable recommendations regarding the management of the heritage resources tentatively identified in the vicinity of the project. As stressed previously, we understood that it would be impossible to offer any definitive management plan based on a relatively superficial visit. We could, however, begin to focus on essential issues and offer an impartial view of how heritage resources were being handled.

Project Setting

Charleston County is situated in the central lower coastal plain of South Carolina and is bounded on the east by about 75 miles of irregular Atlantic Ocean shoreline and marsh, barrier, and sea islands. The mainland topography consists of subtle undulations in the landscape characteristic of ridge and bay topography of beach ridge plains. Elevations in the county range from sea level to about 70 feet above mean sea level (AMSL) (Mathew et al. 1980:133).

The County is drained by four primary coastal (saltwater) river systems and three rivers with significant freshwater discharge (the Santee, Cooper, and South Edisto rivers). Because of the low topography, however, many broad, low gradient interior drains, such as nearby Penny Creek to the north and east of the project area, are present as either extensions of tidal streams and rivers or flooded bays and swales. There are many diverse wetland communities influenced by inundation and river flow. Upland vegetation in the County is primarily pine or mixed hardwood and pine, and only about 4.9% of the county is currently cultivated (while about 7.5% of the total land area is urbanized).

The Encampment Plantation area is located about 26 miles west-southwest of the City of Charleston, just 3.5 miles from the Colleton

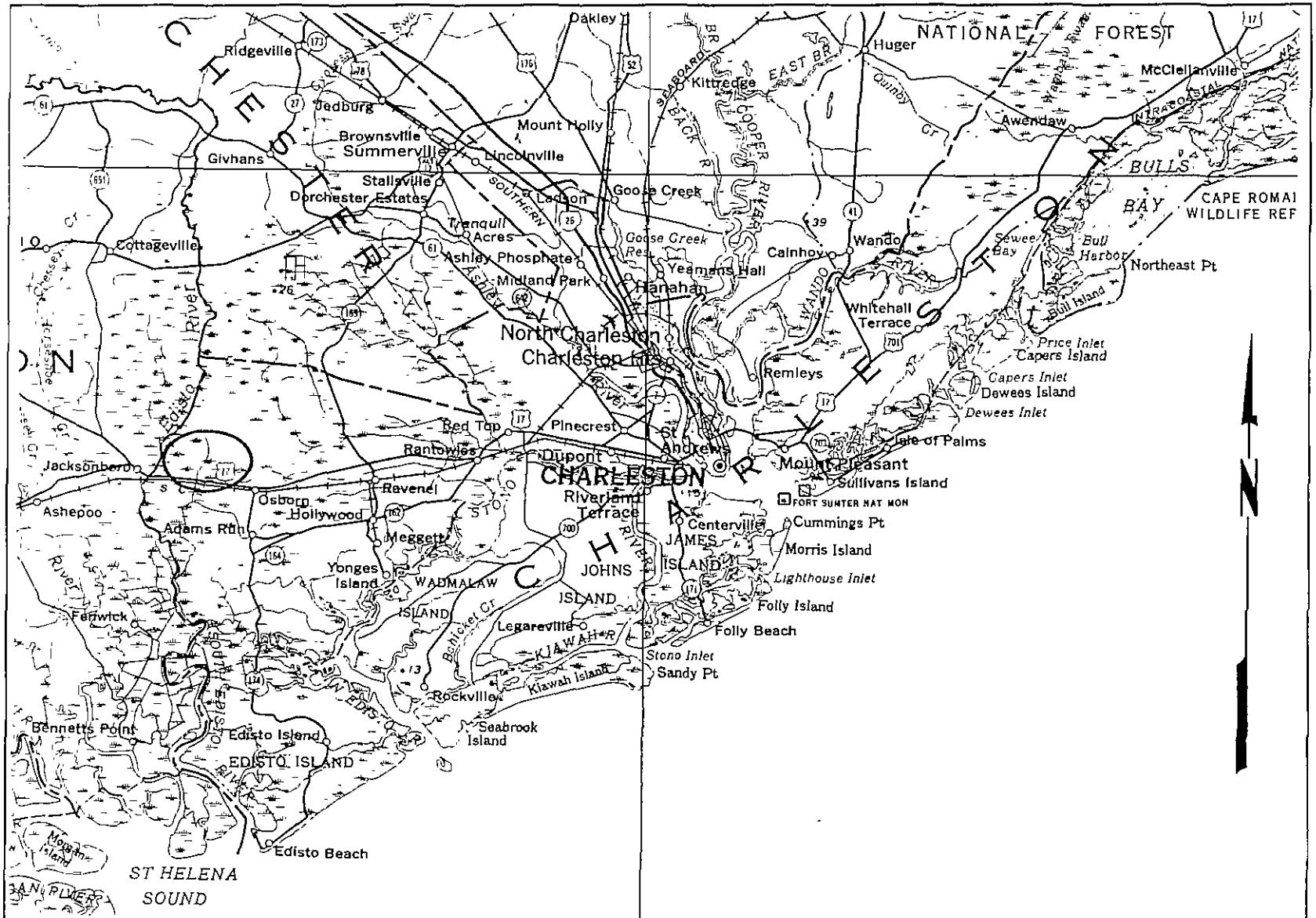

Figure 1. Location of project area in Charleston County, South Carolina.

County line (Figure 1). If we take the Pye's 37.6 acre tract as the remnant high ground core of Encampment Plantation, it is bordered to the south by adjacent tracts and Savannah Highway (U.S. 17), to the west by Battlefield Plantation, to the north by property owned by Westvaco, and to the east by at least five additional property owners.

The plantation, at least during the twentieth century, took on a somewhat contorted appearance (Figure 2). In general, the tract appears as a rectangle oriented north-south and bisected by a large swamp area. The original plantation was characterized by 13 different soil series (Table 1), most of which are poorly to very poorly drained (accounting for nearly three-quarters of the plantation's acreage). Many of these poorly drained soils are historically known to be associated with rice cultivation. Well drained soils, such as the Hockley, Orangeburg, and Wagram series, are clustered in three locations — one concentration is found on the southern edge of the property (encompassing much of the Pye's tract of land), a second is found as a small knoll in the middle of the rice fields in the central portion of the plantation (now on the County's property), and the third is found toward the northern edge of the plantation (also within Charleston County's property) (Miller 1971:Maps 47 and 57).

The information on soils and drainage is particularly important since it affects not only the vegetation but, more importantly, the potential land use and the potential for archaeological remains. The poorly-drained soils are not likely to have been used by either prehistoric or historic people for occupation sites. The use of these soils during the historic period for rice cultivation, however, has left a legacy of water control devices and landscape alteration which must be considered artifacts of this past lifeway. The water control devices such as floodgates and dikes are especially significant landscape features worthy of recordation and, in some cases, actually recovery and preservation.

It is on the well-drained soils that occupation sites from the historic and prehistoric periods are most likely to be found, at least according to traditional archaeological thought. We know, however, that slave settlements for rice plantations were at least occasionally situated on the poorly drained or somewhat poorly drained soils at the edge of the fields, ensuring that the slaves were in close proximity to their work (see Singleton 1980 and Zierden and Calhoun 1983 for examples). We also are discovering that during the eighteenth century, plantation owners, unaware of the health effects of the low, wet soils and associated mosquitoes, placed their settlements close to the rice fields. It was only during the nineteenth century that settlements began to move out of the lowlands to be on higher, sandy soils.[1]

Table 1.
Soils Found on Encampment Plantation

Moderately Well Drained to Well Drained		23.3%
Hockley	22.2%	
Orangeburg	0.3%	
Wagram	0.8%	
Somewhat Poorly Drained		2.9%
Charleston	2.9%	
Poorly Drained to Very Poorly Drained		73.8%
Cape Fear	1.8%	
Meggett	3.0%	
Portsmouth	1.0%	
Rains	1.9%	
Rutledge-Pamlico	0.9%	
Santee	10.3%	
Stono	0.6%	
Wadmalaw	22.4%	
Yonges	31.9%	

The southern third of Encampment Plantation is situated on a relatively high, sandy bluff sloping to the south, west, north and east. Elevations range from around 15 feet AMSL at the edges of the parcel to around 30 feet AMSL in the center. The relatively high elevations in this area help explain the relatively well-drained soils. The central third of the plantation is almost exclusively

[1] The S.C. SHPO has recognized that we cannot, with certainty, eliminate poorly drained soils from archaeological investigations, cautioning that such areas should still be examined (S.C. State Historic Preservation Office n.d.:20).

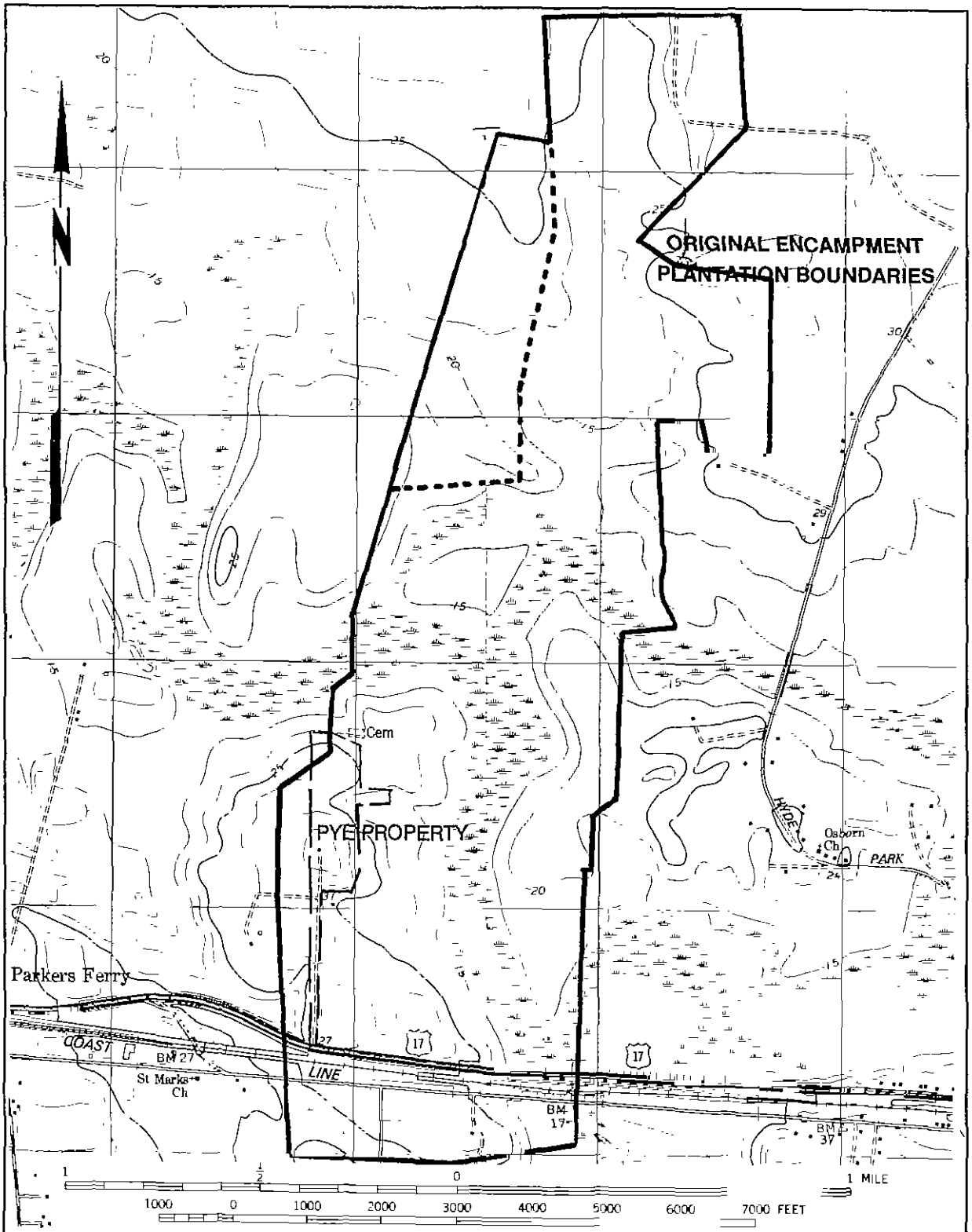

Figure 2. Portions of the Jacksonboro and Osborn 7.5' USGS topographic maps showing the approximate boundaries of Encampment Plantation.

dominated by swamp lands with elevations below 15 feet AMSL. The topography slopes up, out of these remnant rice fields, toward the northern third of the property and reaches a maximum elevation of about 30 feet AMSL in the extreme northwestern corner of the plantation.

As might be expected, the soils, drainage, and topography all affect the vegetation of the tract. In general, Encampment is found in an area of Atlantic Coast Flatwoods. Cypress, blackgum, and tupelo were historically abundant on the poorly-drained swamplands, while sweetgum, white oak, water oak, ash, and occasionally loblolly pine were found on the better drained alluvial river bottom areas. These same hardwoods competed with loblolly pine on the poorly- drained flatwoods while on dry ridges longleaf pine was a common species (Ellerbe 1974:18). Küchler (1964:111) broadly defines the area's potential natural vegetation as an oak-hickory-pine forest characterized by medium tall to tall forests of broadleaf deciduous and needleleaf evergreen trees.

One cannot discuss the natural environment of the project area without remarking, albeit briefly, on the impact of rice cultivation. Driving from Charleston southward on U.S. 17 there are several areas where broad expanses of abandoned rice fields are still recognizable. The crop, and labor system, these fields supported still haunt South Carolina's history.

Although introduced at least by the 1690s, rice did not become a significant staple crop until the early eighteenth century. At that time it not only provided the proprietors with the economic base the mercantile system required, but it was also to form the basis of South Carolina's plantation system -- slavery.

At first, during the late seventeenth and early eighteenth centuries, rice was grown on inland swamps. It wasn't until the mid-eighteenth century, when slave labor became particularly abundant, that rice began to be grown in the swamps bordering the fresh-water tidal rivers and inland swamp cultivation was abandoned. The early planters had to solve two problems in inland swamp cultivation: first, they had to achieve adequate drainage and second, they had to find adequate water for irrigation.

Duncan Clinch Heyward explores the early inland swamp rice cultivation, offering a detailed account of the process:

> To reclaim an inland swamp the first work to be done was to throw up a strong earth dam across its lower end. The purpose of this dam was to prevent salt water from overflowing parts of the swamp to be planted. Then, higher up in the swamp, smaller dams were built. The land between these dams was known as "squares," and each square was given a name by which it could be designated. All of the dams extended entirely across the swamp from the highland on one side to the highland on the other.
>
> Through the dam at the lower end of the swamp one or more large sluice gates were placed. These sluice gates were known as "trunks," a name brought to the province by the early English settlers, who had seen them used in the freshwater marshes of England. . . .
>
> When the dams had been built and the trunks installed, the clearing of the swamp was begun. This was not, in most instances, a great undertaking, for very large trees seldom grew in the lower portions of these swamps, nor was the undergrowth very dense [cf. Hewatt 1971:I:118 [1779]]. When the land was cleared, canals and ditches were dug. This also was not difficult work, for the dark, alluvial soil yielded readily to the shovel. By means of these ditches the lands to be planted were drained to the greatest possible extent. The smaller of the ditches ran across the swamp, and were known as "quarter" ditches, while

the larger, running in both directions, were called "face" ditches. These names continued to be used during the life of the industry in South Carolina and Georgia.

Nearly equal in size to the large dam at the lower end of the swamp was another dam, the highest up in the swamp. This dam held the water in the upper unreclaimed portion of the swamp and made it a reservoir, to be used for irrigation. These reservoirs were, however, most uncertain, for the amount of water they contained was dependent upon rainfall, and a long dry season meant the failure of a crop. . . .

It was principally this lack of water at one time and too much water at another that caused, in later years, the inland swamp plantations to be gradually abandoned, and the cultivation of rice transferred to the much larger swamps adjacent to fresh-water rivers, in which the fall of the tides could be depended upon for irrigation and drainage (Heyward 1993:12-14; see also Meriwether 1940 and Sellers 1934 for additional accounts).

The process of planting and tending inland swamp rice was in many ways different than tidal rice. Thomas Drayton noted the inland swamp rice was planted several weeks later than the tidal rice (usually first or second week in April), "as their soils are of colder nature" (Drayton 1802:117). Unlike tidal rice, which was flooded immediately after planting, inland swamp rice was rarely covered, since the planters didn't want to exhaust their reservoirs so early in the season. Instead, the rice was allowed to come up naturally. This, of course, created situations where the grain might rot in the ground. Alternatively, it might also be overgrown with grass and weeds, requiring extensive hoeing.

The inland swamp rice planter continued his slaves hoeing through the "branching" of the rice. Typically water was not applied to the fields until the rice began to "joint, blossom, and form the ear," usually in August, at which time "whenever it can be thrown on from rivers, or reservoirs, it is so done: and it is retained thereon, with a change of water, if convenient, until a few days before harvest" (Drayton 1802:119).

However different planting was, the collecting and processing seems identical for tidal and inland swamp rice. The process, according to Drayton, involved several steps:

> After harvest, the crop is placed in the open barn yards, either in stacks or in large ricks. It is then threshed out by hand-flails, on a level barn yard or floor, made of rammed clay, or of portions of sand and tar; and being winnowed from the straw, is ready for beating. This operation was formerly performed by manual labour, with a pestle and mortar; and is still so done, in some parts of the state. . . . rice mills in this state are now arrived to a perfection . . . . Three kinds of rice mills, called *pecker, cog,* and *water* mills are used in this state. . . . The water mills are put in motion by undershot wheels; the level situation of the lower country, not allowing an head of water to be raised for doing otherwise. In general they are of simple construction, performing the operation only of beating; with the addition, sometimes, of a grinding and winnowing part, similar to the annexed engraving; but, of late years, some have been erected with complicated mechanism; whose movements proceed with perfect harmony, carrying the grain through a variety of changes, until it be finally delivered into the barrel, and is there packed for market

(Drayton 1802:121-124).

Coclanis (1989:97) suggests that in the first quarter of the eighteenth century rice yields averaged around 1,000 pounds of clean rice per acre, although by the time of the American Revolution even inland swamp rice yields were upwards of 1,500 pounds per acre. Correspondingly, whereas James Glen, writing in 1748, explained that a good slave would produce about 2,250 pounds of rice, by the second half of the eighteenth century that figure had increased to 3,000 to 3,600 pounds yearly by an *average* worker.

During this period, rice prices fluctuated from a low of 2.24 shillings sterling per hundredweight in 1746 to over 12 shillings sterling per hundredweight in 1772. In 1722 rice prices were at 5.17 shillings or about $30.06 per hundred pounds of cleaned rice in 1992 dollars. By 1734 the price had jumped to $50.26 (again in 1992 dollars per hundredweight), only to fall to about $36.58 by 1742 (Coclanis 1989:106).

During this same period African American male slaves typically sold for £250 currency, or about $4120 in 1992 dollars (Donnan 1928:820). While there were fluctuations, this figure seems relatively stable for much of the colonial period. Even considering the very high prices paid for slave labor, during the period from 1740 through 1770, the annual net rates of return on investment in rice agriculture ranged from a low of about 13.5% to a high of 33.5% (Coclanis 1989:141).

These observations are sufficient to illustrate that rice and slaves were inseparable. And with rice and slavery came, to many, unbelievable wealth. Coclanis notes that:

> on the eve of the American Revolution, the white population of the low country was by far the richest single group in British North America. With the area's wealth based largely on the expropriation by whites of the golden rice and blue dye produced by black slaves, the Carolina low country had by 1774 reached a level of aggregate wealth greater than that in many parts of the world even today. The evolution of Charleston, the center of the low-country civilization, reflected not only the growing wealth of the area but also its spirit and soul (Coclanis 1989:7).

Previous or Ongoing Investigations

Encampment Plantation first attracted the attention of preservationists during the 1991-1992 survey of historic resources in Charleston County by Preservation Consultants (Frick 1992). At that time the plantation received a brief notice in the text, where it was noted that "American troops were stationed [at the plantation] to guard the approach to Jacksonboro from Charleston" (Frick 1992:16). In addition, the extant house, dating from about 1930 and now owned by the Pye's, was recorded as historic site 734.00. An associated oak avenue, estimated to date from 1825, was recorded as historic site 734.01. For reasons that are not entirely clear, the African-American cemetery about 0.4 mile to the north was also included as part of site 734.01.The documentation for these sites is reproduced here as Appendix 2.

At least by March 1995 the S.C. SHPO had become aware of the potential significance of the tract and on March 29 three individuals from the SHPO spent a day exploring a portion of the property adjacent to the Pye's tract. To the best of our knowledge no report of their investigations has been produced, although a list of artifacts recovered from this study is filled with the S.C. Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology (Mr. Keith Derting, personal communication 1995).

We understand that Charleston County is in the process of selecting a consultant to conduct an intensive archaeological survey of an adjacent tract. This study, while not incorporating the Pye's property, will certainly help us better understand the significance of adjacent parcels and is consequently anticipated with considerable interest.

In addition, Chicora Foundation has submitted a National Park Service Survey and Planning proposal to the S.C. Department of Archives and History for funds to allow the

development of a National Register District encompassing the Pye's property. Termed the Jacksonborough and Parker's Ferry Road National Register District, this study would explore the eighteenth and nineteenth century history of approximately 6500 acres in this area. Ultimately we believe that it may be possible to include this area as a National Historic Landmark, the designation used to identify our Nation's most significant heritage resources. One unifying theme would include African American history — including the role played by black slaves in the development of rice cultivation and southern rice plantations, the role of slave resistance, and the role of African American religion as seen in the area's cemeteries. Another theme would be the importance of the area to the American Revolution in the South — including the role of Jacksonborough as the capitol of the state during the occupation of Charleston, the role of area in feeding and maintaining General Nathanael Greene's troops, and the role of local patriots in containing the British to their toe-hold on Charleston.

HISTORICAL OVERVIEW

There is relatively little well-documented history available for the project area. Although it is frequently associated with certain events, such as the Stone Rebellion and the encampment of General Greene during the Jacksonborough Assembly, no thorough historical analysis has been conducted. While the current investigations have included two days of historical research, our study has just scratched the surface by exploring obvious sources (such as the Combined Alphabetic Index at the S.C. Department of Archives and History) and by examining a few of the many available primary documents. We have not undertaken a complete title search for the property. Nor have we examined all of the numerous references in the *South Carolina Historical Magazine*. We have not explored the resources of the Avery Institute, the South Carolina Historical Society, or the Charleston Library Society. In sum, while we are presenting a broad overview of the tract, there is much left to research. Further, this research is of critical importance to both the archaeological survey of the property and the wise management of the heritage resources.

Hayne's Ownership in the Antebellum

Absent a title search for the property a convenient beginning point for our research is the 1826 Mill's Atlas map of Colleton District which shows the location of a "Haine" residence in the area which was part of St. Paul's Parish (Figure 3). The 1820 federal census (1820 Federal Census, Colleton County, page 52) reveals only one Hayne living in St. Paul's Parish of Colleton – Robert Young Hayne (1791-1839). The *Biographical Directory of the South Carolina House of Representatives* provides an overview of Hayne which may be of interest to those not familiar with his importance in South Carolina history. Primarily Hayne is remembered for his 1830 debate over nullification with Daniel Webster on the floor of the United States Senate. Prior to this, however, Hayne served in the South Carolina House (1814-1817) and was elected Attorney General for the state (1818). He served in the United States Senate from 1823 through 1832. In 1832 he was elected Governor of South Carolina (Bailey 1984:271-273).

This was not likely Hayne's primary residence, since he owned property in both Georgetown District (where there were 121 slaves) and Charleston (where he held 19 slaves) (Bailey 1984:271). He apparently lived in Charleston (1820 Federal Census, Charleston County, page 49) where his household consisted of five whites.

A decade earlier, in 1810, the only Hayne living in Colleton County was William Hayne (1766-1817), R.Y. Hayne's father. The elder Hayne is also found in the 1800 census, but is absent in 1790 (when the only Hayne is Isaac, living in nearby St. Bartholomew's Parish at Hayne Hall, see McCrady Plat 6315). Margaret Hayne Harrison notes that John Hayne arrived in Carolina about 1700 and established the family's Colleton County plantation, where R.Y. Hayne was eventually born (Harrison 1953:61). One of the more detailed maps for the period, Henry Mouzon's "An Accurate Map of North and South Carolina" (1776) fails to reveal any Haynes in this area, although there are several unlabeled plantations (Figure 4). An essentially identical view is provided by James Cook's 1773 "A Map of the Province of South Carolina."

This information suggests that R.Y. Hayne inherited his father's St. Paul's plantation sometime after 1817.[2] Although no will could be found for William Hayne, the will of Arthur P. Hayne (a brother of R.Y. Hayne) specified that he "became entitled to one-tenth" of his father's

[2] Mrs. Pye suggests that the tract may have passed from William Hayne to Robert Young Hayne by way of Abraham Hayne in 1759. We have not had an opportunity to explore this possibility, although it appears reasonable.

"Estate Real and Personal," suggesting that the bulk of the estate went elsewhere, perhaps as a life estate to his widow, Elizabeth Peronneau, or perhaps more directly to R.Y. Hayne.

There is no more certain information concerning the plantation after Hayne's death in 1839. Robert Young is not listed in 1830 census for either Charleston or Colleton and his will (Charleston Wills, v. 42, 1839-1845, page 42) is relatively uninformative. He devises to his wife, Rebecca B. Hayne, his "House Servants," presumably those in Charleston, as well as "Lucy and Queen (now on the plantation)." He also reveals that he had previously made provisions for his wife in a deed prior to his death — this deed, if it was recorded and can be found, may tell us what became of the St. Paul's plantation. There seems to be little indication that the plantation went to any of his children. Instead, he specifically mentions that he had given to his children the property he obtained in marriage, most likely the Georgetown holdings. In 1840 Rebecca Hayne, William A. Hayne, and Henry W. Peronneau, executors for Robert Young Hayne's estate, sold 51 slaves to Edward Carea (South Carolina Department of Archives and History, 0002 001 005W 00126). This may suggest that his holdings were gradually being eliminated, but it does not really help us understand the late antebellum use of the Encampment tract. Nor is Rebecca's will, proved April 29, 1863, especially enlightening since it fails to specify any property.

Edmund Ruffin, who traveled through this area in 1843, reported that like much of the low country, the lands were exhausted and many plantations were abandoned. Except for those plantations directly on the rivers, there was "no sign of habitation, or of cultivation, except two or three inland rice swamps, the highland pine

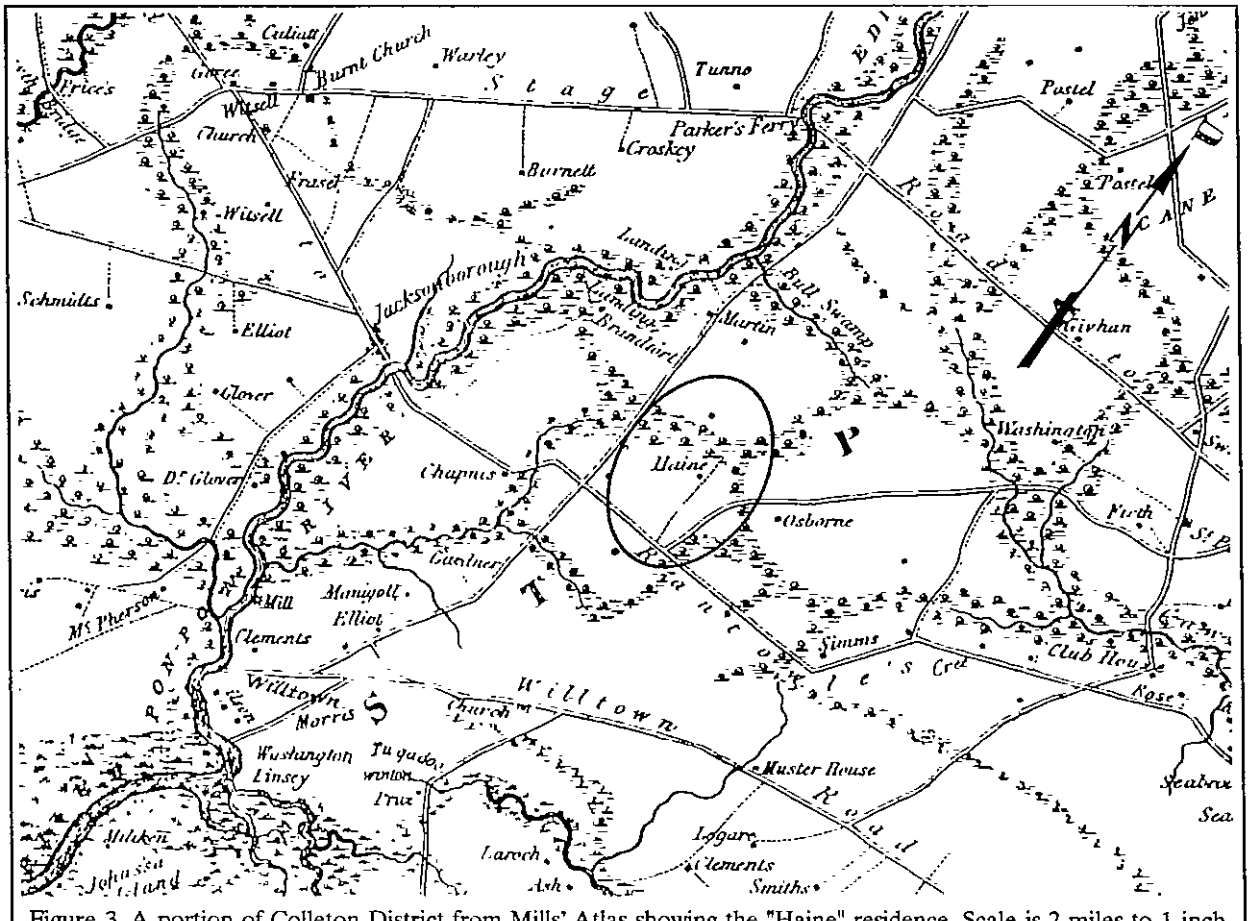

Figure 3. A portion of Colleton District from Mills' Atlas showing the "Haine" residence. Scale is 2 miles to 1 inch.

Figure 4. Portion of Mouzon's map of North and South Carolina showing the vicinity of Encampment Plantation in 1775.

barrens, & others of moist swampy appearance" (Mathew 1992:122). Concerning Jacksonborough, Ruffin noted that it "was once for a time the seat of government, & a place of importance. Now only 4 or 5 houses seem to be inhabited, & one only, the tavern, is in good condition" (Mathew 1992:121). It may be that Encampment Plantation suffered the same fate as other tracts — worn and nearly exhausted after over a hundred years of cultivation, it may have simply been abandoned, serving only as a source of timber.

While there is circumstantial evidence linking Encampment to R.Y. Hayne, absent a title search little more can be said. We have been unable to quickly identify any state plats, or plats in the McCrady Collection, for either William or Robert Young Hayne, or the Encampment tract.

Ms. Pye, however, has identified a plat, through secondary sources, of the Encampment tract dating to 1838 which shows the property owned by James M. King, Sr. (Colleton County RMC, Plat Book 1, page 9-10). While not recorded until 1899, this plat adds additional support to our belief that at R.Y. Hayne's death the plantation was sold.

Encampment's Colonial History

Again, our synopsis of Encampment's history lacks a detailed chain of title and thorough research. The tract, however, is most commonly associated with two events — the first is the Stono Rebellion and the second is General Nathanael Greene's encampment protecting the Jacksonborough Assembly.

David Duncan Wallace's account of the Stono Rebellion is typical and offers the same general information found in most overviews of the South Carolina low country or in texts on African American history. Wallace relies on a lengthy quote from Lieutenant Governor Bull to the Lords of Trade to provide an account of the slave revolt:

> Many attempts of others have been discovered and prevented, notwithstanding which, on the ninth of September last at night a great number of negroes arose in

> rebellion, broke open a store where they got arms, killed twenty-one white persons, and were marching the next morning in a daring manner out of the province, killing all they met and burning several houses as they passed along the road. I was returning from Granville County with four gentlemen and met these rebels at eleven o'clock in the forenoon and fortunately discerning the approaching anger time enough to avoid it, and to give notice to the militia, who on that occasion behaved with so much expedition and bravery as by four o'clock the same day to come up with them and killed and took so many as put a stop to any further mischief at that time. Forty-four of them have been killed and executed. Some few yet remaining concealed in the woods expecting the same fate, seem desperate (Wallace 1934:I:373).

As sketchy as this account is, it is substantively identical to those offered by the Council Journal - Upper House (1737-1741, Number 7) and the Records in the British Public Record Office Relating to South Carolina (volume 20, 1739-1742).[3]

The most thorough account, pieced together from a variety of primary sources, is offered by Peter Wood in *Black Majority*. Even he, however, had problems, noting that, "for obvious reasons, published sources are irregular on these matters — the *South Carolina Gazette* refrained from mentioning the Stono incident, which occurred within twenty miles of Charleston" (Wood 1974:298). Regardless, the notes that the rebellion began during the early hours of Sunday, September 9 at the western branch of the Stono in St. Paul's Parish. The slaves, numbering about 20 at that time, moved to Stono Bridge and broke into Hutchenson's store, killing the proprietors, Robert Bathurst and Mr. Gibbs, and stealing weapons. They moved southward on the road to Georgia and St. Augustine, reaching Wallace's Tavern before dawn. From there they passed the plantations of Lemy, Hext, Sprye, Sacheverell, Nash, and Rose, all apparently on the Pon Pon Road. They came to a halt at a "field on the north side of the road, not far from the site of the Jacksonburough ferry" (Wood 1974:316). There they intended to camp, waiting the night for others to join them before proceeding on. Wood, however, notes that "by about four in the afternoon a contingent of armed and mounted planters, variously numbered from twenty to one hundred, moved in upon the rebels' location" (Wood 1974:317). The battle was short and the majority of the slaves were summarily executed.

Wood accepts that the encampment, and ensuing battle, took place in the project area, citing a brief mention by H.A.M. Smith:

> The male members of the congregation were members of the militia and had attended church with their arms as required by law. They were enabled without delay to pursue the negroes who were found on a plantation a short distance north of the road to Jacksonboro ferry and still called "Battlefield." After a short conflict the negroes were routed (Smith 1909:28).

While Smith, writing at a time when much historical information was still fresh and alive, may be substantively correct, so many details in his account are either wrong (i.e., the requirement that whites carry weapons on Sunday did not go into force until September 29, 1739, and it seems unlikely that the militia which eventually encountered the slaves had came directly from church) or written for the purpose of a good story that it is hard to distinguish reality from fiction.

Since even Wood, with his extensive research, was unable to identify any source more trustworthy than H.A.M. Smith, it is difficult to accept without qualification the role which

[3] Even the "Account of the Negroe Insurrection in South Carolina," found in Candler and Knight's (1913) *The Colonial Records of the State of Georgia* provides little additional information.

neighboring Battlefield played in the rebellion. While the story is plausible, it seems that the name was not applied prior to the late nineteenth century (Robert Stockton, personal communication 1995).

In a similar fashion, Encampment has been associated with Nathanael Greene's army taking up positions to protect the assembly meeting in Jacksonborough on the other side of the Edisto River in mid-January 1782 (see, for example, Greene 1970:285-286). Although no primary research has been done on this topic, it is perhaps worthy of note that no less an authority than William Gilmore Simms noted in 1856 that:

> Greene took post with the Army at Skirving's plantation, six miles in advance of Jacksonborough, on the road leading to Charleston. This was on the sixteenth, two days before the opening of the session (Simms 1856:319).

Afterwards Green's troops apparently moved from Skirving's down to Bacon's Bridge, on the Ashley River (Simms 1856:329).[4]

A location six miles from Jacksonborough would place Greene midway between Parkers Ferry and Osborn. Unfortunately, the only plat we have been able to locate for William Skirving (McCrady Plat 6612, dated July 11, 1768, for 1059 acres) fails to show any roads or other cultural features. His tract, however, is bounded by lands of John Peters, W. Wilkinion, Mathew Bee,[5] and W. Bittinger, so with additional research it should be possible to identify this specific parcel and its relationship with Encampment. Ms. Pye's research suggests that this tract may be the adjacent Oaklawn Plantation, owned in the postbellum by the Gonzales family.

Encampment's Postbellum History

Absent a title search for the property we are no better able to reconstruct the postbellum land use or history than we have been able to understand the plantation's earlier history. Ms. Pye has begun a title search and it appears that the King family (first identified as owning the property in 1838) continued to hold Encampment Plantation until sometime after the Civil when it apparently was obtained by Amarinthia Alston. In 1884 R.G. King foreclosed on the mortgage he held and the property was sold in a Master's sale to King's wife, Sarah W. King.

King, in turn was foreclosed upon by E.H. Ficken and J.N. Mayer in 1891, with the 1195 acre Encampment tract sold to Elizabeth L. Lucus in 1892. Only two years later Lucus sold the tract to Thomas B. Sanders, although the mining rights on a 65 acre parcel of Encampment were reserved by F.C. Fishburne. In 1898 Encampment was conveyed by Sanders to Martha Fox for $ 1,200.

There are indications that at least some portions of Encampment, along with neighboring Battlefield, were involved in phosphate mining, perhaps under the Pon Pon Phosphate Company (Lee Pye, personal communication 1995). A local individual who has grown up on the property also confirmed the presence of phosphate mining on Encampment Plantation, apparently limited to the northern portion of the tract.

Phosphate rocks in South Carolina were recognized by chemists and geologists at least as early as 1797, although their economic importance was ignored, blunted before the Civil War, as one observer explained, by "a state of agricultural prosperity" (Guerard 1884:1). In fact, it was only when the economy of the Low Country lay in ruins that phosphate was explored. As Shick and Doyle convincingly argue, phosphate mining

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[4] Even this, however, must be interpreted with caution. For example Frazier (1970:34) comments that Johnson's *Sketches of the Life and Correspondence of Nathanael Greene* reports that his encampment was established at Sanders Hill — a tract or spot we have not been able to identify thus far in our research.

[5] Mathew Bee may be related to Thomas Bee, who had served a term in Congress and who had helped to shape southern military policy. Thomas Bee's plantation, shown on the 1775 Boss and Brailsford map of low country South Carolina and Mouzon's 1775 map of North and South Carolina, was situated on the north side of the Jacksonborough Road, on the east side of the Edisto (in the area today located between Pon Pon and Parker's Ferry).

allowed:

> the upper class of planters and factors in the Charleston area . . . to shore up a slightly replica of the social order they had defended in the late war (Shick and Doyle 1985:31).

Just as to the point they argue that:

> [i]n the grand mansions of the city the upper class of old families continued to hold sway despite some disturbing signs of genteel poverty in flaking paint and pawned silver. The older leaders of this "ancient city" developed a fiercely conservative resistance to things new and came to see the lack of growth as a blessing that allowed them to preserve a special heritage with its roots in the old order of antebellum times (Shick and Doyle 1985:30).

Phosphate allowed economic activity, but without any real growth. It allowed the blacks to be engaged in productive activity, but without allowing any true freedom. And, like cotton before it, phosphate was pre-destined both to destroy the land and to result in eventual economic collapse.

Phosphates, used as fertilizers, were found as deposits in beds or strata of rough nodules "from part of an inch to several feet in diameter," often associated with fossil bones. The strata was typically 6 to 20 inches in depth and was found up to 8 feet below the modern surface. The nodules were also found in creeks and "on the low lands which form a belt of country running parallel to and ten to fifty miles from the seaboard" according to Guerard (1884:4). In the post-war rush to find some new system to bolster the economy and put blacks to work, however, none of the problems potentially associated with phosphates were considered significant.

The phosphate industry in South Carolina eventually fell victim to forces much bigger, and more powerful, than imagined by the investors — resembling the events associated both with cotton and rice. The rapid decline in South Carolina was largely the result of new strikes in Florida during the 1880s, strikes in Middle Tennessee in the 1890s, and eventually the discovery of deposits in Algiers. At the same time, internal problems such as political conflict (including exceptionally unsuccessful efforts by South Carolina to regulate the industry), natural disasters, and the decisive role of the northern capitalists all contributed to the fall of the phosphate industry. Land mining of phosphate continued into the 1920s, but at a declining scale. Even mergers and infusion of capital were unable to keep the industry viable in South Carolina.

Land phosphates were mined in a process not dissimilar to strip mining seen today. One account explains that:

> having carefully examined the land for phosphate, its depth, thickness of stratum, etc., a field is selected and drained by means of trenches, technically known as "line pits," dug around the tract and reaching below the level of the rock bed, this field is about 600 yards wide, and made as long as possible for transportation of the dug rock. A tram road for horse, or steam, is constructed through the midst of the field in its length, and then, commencing at the "line pits" and working in toward the tram, pits measuring 6 by 12 feet, are sunk in long parallel lines. The superincumbent earth is thrown up with shovels behind the men, and the phosphate rock dug out with picks and cast on the untouched ground in front. When trees are in the field they are undermined and thrown over on the side which has already been excavated. The rock is rolled from the pits in barrows and dumped on platforms on the roadside, whence it is loaded into cars for transportation to the washers (Guerard 1884:6).

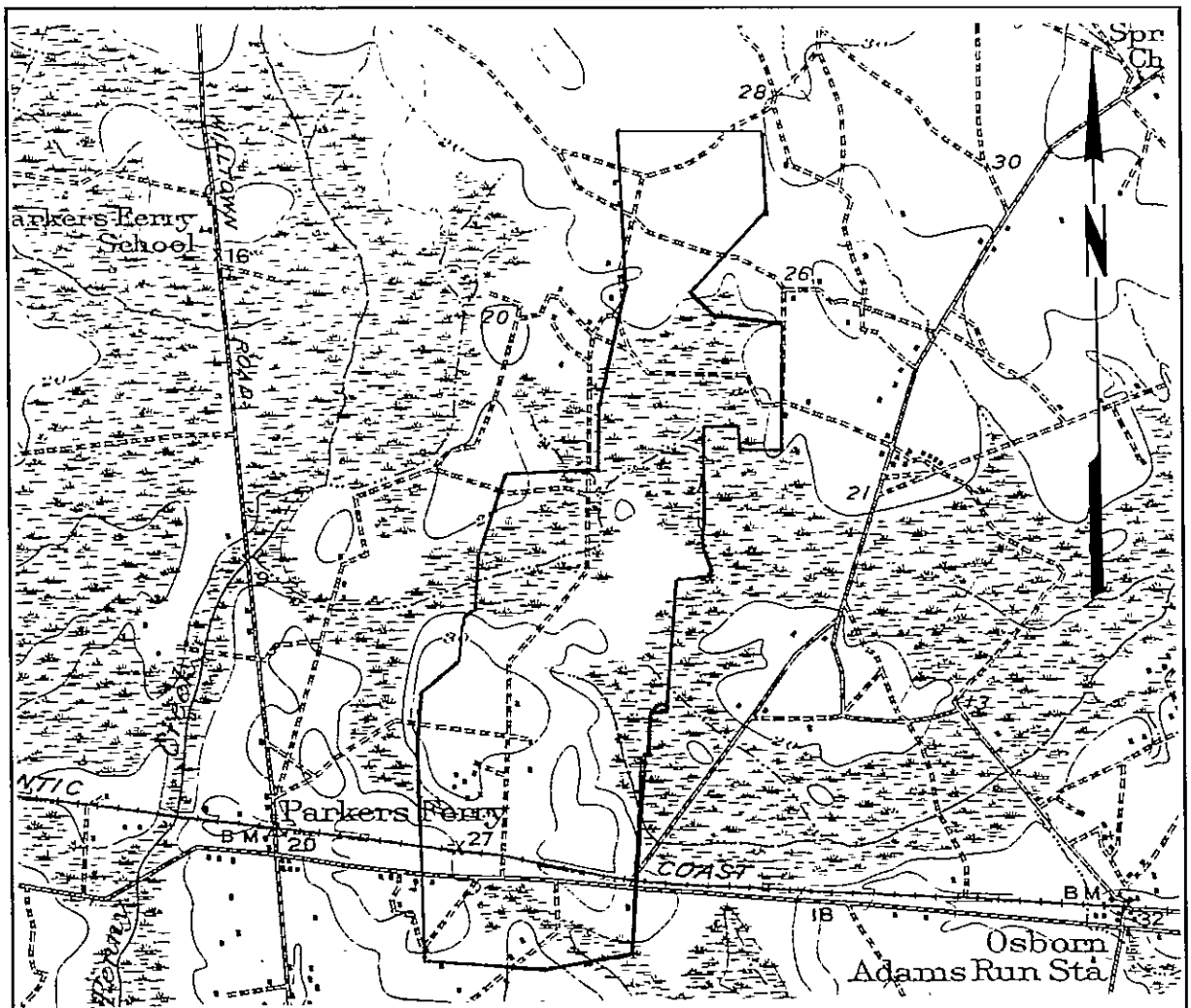

Figure 5. Cottageville 15' topographic map showing the Encampment Plantation vicinity in the early twentieth century. Scale is approximately 3300 feet to 1 inch.

Another account, while somewhat more poetic, offers a clear understanding of the industry's impact on the land:

> Here, sloping down to the river-banks on either side, you see the grand old plantations, of which such beautiful traditions are preserved. Grand are they still, but with a melancholy grandeur, as dethroned things or exiled heros. Silent they have stood for many years, discrowned and voiceless. . . . But lo! along the banks of the river runs a thrill of awakening life . . . new sounds are heard, and the old, whose hearts cling to the ways of the past, turn aside with a little sigh as the great trees fall beneath the axe . . . . The land just here looks as though a whirlwind has passed over it. Giant roots torn up lie scattered here and there. It is a sunny expanse of desolation (Haskell n.d.:411).

Consistent in all of the descriptions is the incredible amount of destruction caused by the

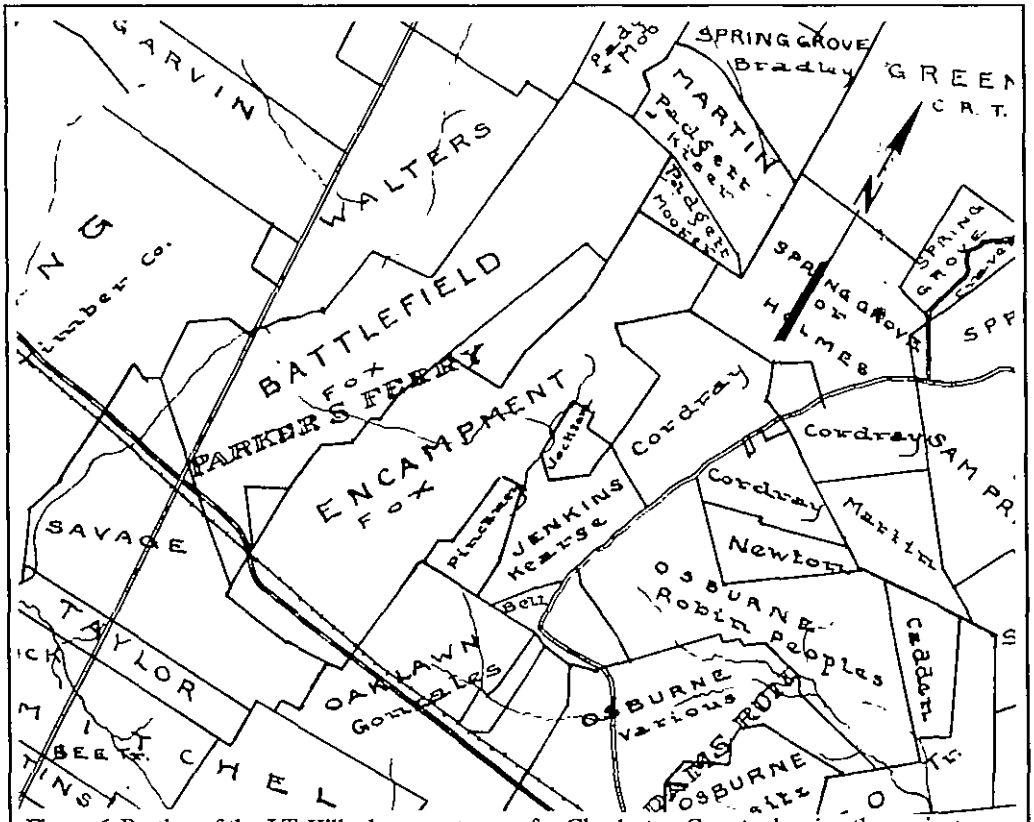

Figure 6. Portion of the J.T. Killock property map for Charleston County showing the project area in the 1930s. Scale is 1 mile to 1 inch.

mining process.

It is also apparent that the mining operations evolved through time. Chazal remarks that early efforts by many of the companies were not well coordinated. The pits were small and widely-spaced, resulting in little rock. Later, "some of the fields that had been pitted in this way were afterwards mined systematically, and as much rock taken from them as had been obtained at the first digging" (Chazal 1904:50). Consequently, there were some fields which received only limited mining, while others were very intensively mined or even re-mined.

Just as the importation of slaves was justified on the basis of economic need and the supposed inability of white men to survive the rigors of agricultural pursuits, period accounts of phosphate mining remark that blacks "alone can stand the hot suns and malaria of the phosphate swamps in the summer" (Guerard 1884:9). Descriptions of the work reveal that often the blacks were required to stand in the mud and water for hours as they dug through the strata, extracting the phosphate rock -- conditions similar to rice cultivation (Haskell n.d.:412). Yet, "the Negro digs about three days in the week, and is not to be depended on for regular work; but when he fancies, can accomplish a great deal more than a white man in the same time" (1883 report quoted by Shick and Doyle 1985:15). The freedmen, in spite of their "laziness" were employed since they were "docile" and "not given to strikes." In spite of the poor conditions the freedmen generally favored phosphate mining since they were paid by the vertical foot excavated in a 6 by 15 foot pit (typically 25¢ a foot, amounting to about $1/day).

It seems likely, although not conclusively documented, that the phosphate mining operations significantly altered the study tract. While the various drainage ditches would not have caused great damage, clearly the excavation of rock would result in the near total destruction of any archaeological materials present. Areas subjected to mining may show occasional remnants, such as pottery, but are not likely to yield any in situ materials. Mine areas will be recognizable through the presence of the drainage system or through

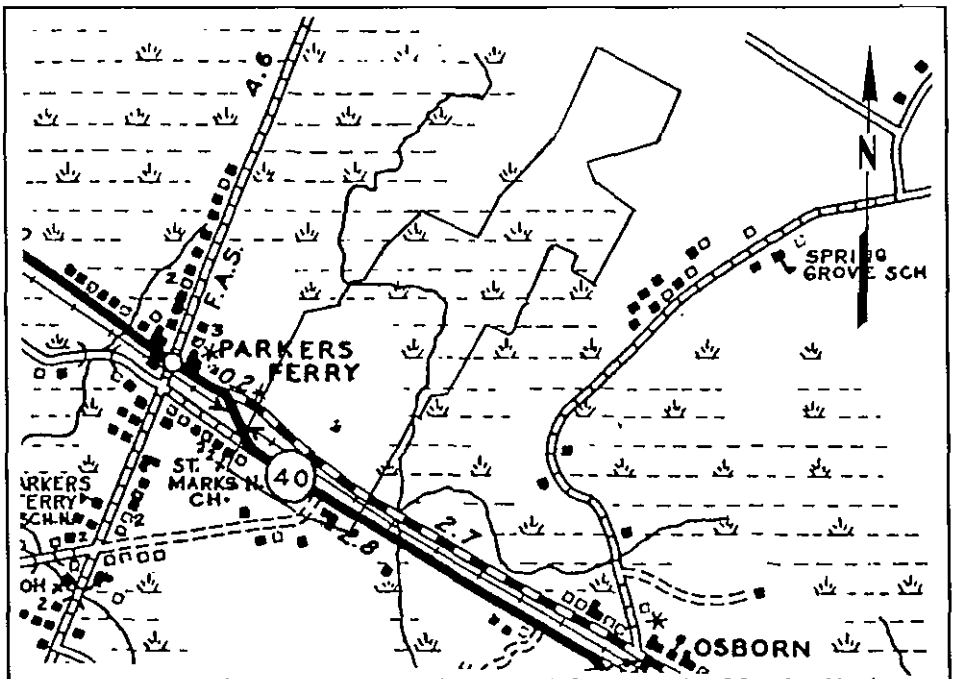

Figure 7. Portion of the 1942 General Highway and Transportation Map for Charleston County showing Encampment Plantation. Scale is 1 mile to 1 inch.

disturbed soil profiles.

Although we were not successful in identifying plats of the project area (admittedly we were not able to consult with either the South Carolina Historical Society or the Charleston County RMC), we did find three maps which provide some information on early twentieth century land use.

The 15' Cottageville topographic map (surveyed in 1918) is reproduced as Figure 5. It shows what may be portions of the original road network as well as a series of structures which may date to the late nineteenth century. In addition, considering the possible margin error of transposing what are thought to be the original property boundaries to the topographic map, even those structures just outside the tract should be considered potentially within Encampment's boundaries at least until an intensive archaeological survey is conducted.

In the early 1930s J.T. Killock prepared a plat map for Charleston County, illustrating the locations of all parcels sufficiently large to be illustrated at a scale of 1 inch to 1 mile. While always requiring verification using RMC records, this plat provides a very useful overview of properties and is shown as Figure 6. The boundaries shown on this map are those taken as representing Encampment's original form. It is possible, however, that small tracts, such as those shown belonging to Jackson and Pinckney along the eastern margin, may originally have been part of Encampment that were sold off in the postbellum. This again illustrates the need for a detailed title search.

The 1942 General Transportation and Highway Map for Charleston County is reproduced as Figure 7, again with the plantation boundary approximately indicated. Only one structure — an occupied dwelling — is shown at the southern end of the parcel, probably representing the Pye's current residence. It should be noted, however, the methodology employed to create the highway maps (essentially driving roads and recording sites using odometer readings) was not conducive to the recordation of structures situated any significant distance off the state or county road. Consequently, the absence of structures on Encampment cannot be considered conclusive.

Ms. Pye has provided us with a copy of a 1957 plat of a portion of Encampment Plantation (Charleston County Register of Mesne Conveyances, Plat Book L, page 22). When compared to Figure 6 it appears that while the northern and eastern boundaries have remained relatively stable, portions of the western edge have been sold off through time.

SURVEY METHODS AND FINDINGS

On Monday, August 7, 1995 Ms. Natalie Adams and Dr. Michael Trinkley visited with the Pye's and examined a number of the sites in the immediate vicinity of Encampment Plantation.

Methods

Our field survey, at best, is a reconnaissance. We examined the general area of the previous S.C. SHPO survey on an adjacent tract, several of the Pyes' agricultural fields, and the vicinity of an African-American cemetery. No effort was made at any of the sites to conduct a systematic or intensive field survey. No shovel tests were excavated. And although we conducted a brief metal detector survey at the location of the previous S.C. SHPO study, we did not quantify "hits" in any manner, nor did we verify the "hits" through excavation. While this visit certainly is not adequate for any compliance purposes, the level of investigation at all of the sites was consistent with our goals of examining the archaeological resources present and obtaining a "feel" for the adjacent property. It was also adequate for site recordation purposes, and it provided us with the background necessary to offer substantive management recommendations.

Findings

During the study, five archaeological sites were physically identified, visited, and recorded. In addition, we gathered information on possible additional sites in the immediate area.

Site **38CH1589** is situated in an abandoned or old field just off the Pye's property on land owned by Charleston County. The central UTM coordinates are E558280, N3625650, and the site is about 5,000 feet northwest of the original Jacksonborough Road. At the time of this visit the field was moderately overgrown in weeds and brambles (Figure 8). There was evidence of previous cultivation, consisting of remnant furrows, and there was evidence that the field had been previously bush hogged, consisting of a dense mat of dead vegetation on the ground surface. The soils in the site area appeared to be relatively loose sandy loams and were identified by the soil survey as being dominated by moderately well-drained Charleston soils.

To the north and west of this site, situated on the edge of a sand ridge, there are swamp lands that are thought to be old rice fields. To the south are primarily woods, while to the west are additional cultivated fields. The topography appears to be relatively level in the site area, although the County's topographic map of the area, provided by Ms. Pye, appears to show the site to be on a slight slope. The ground apparently rises slightly to the south and west.

The site was initially pointed out to us by Ms. Pye, who reported that this was the location of the March 29, 1995, S.C. SHPO metal detector survey. Upon closer examination we identified a number of small holes, about 0.2 foot in depth and about 0.4 by 0.6 foot in size, which were consistent with those produced by excavating metal artifacts identified by metal detectors. In multiple cases we also observed small piles of adjacent soils, apparently representing the spoil from these excavations. In several cases, artifacts (ceramics, glass, and architectural remains) were present on top of this spoil. In addition, our pedestrian survey of the field also revealed a single pin flag, a portion of which read "TR 1." This is likely a reference to a metal detector survey transect as it was found adjacent to a small hole.

Ground surface visibility obscured much of the site, but the metal detector holes produced a small quantity of materials (which were not collected), including light green flat glass, "black" glass, kaolin pipe stems, undecorated creamware ceramics, and blue transfer printed pearlware ceramics. In addition, brick and shell-mortar were

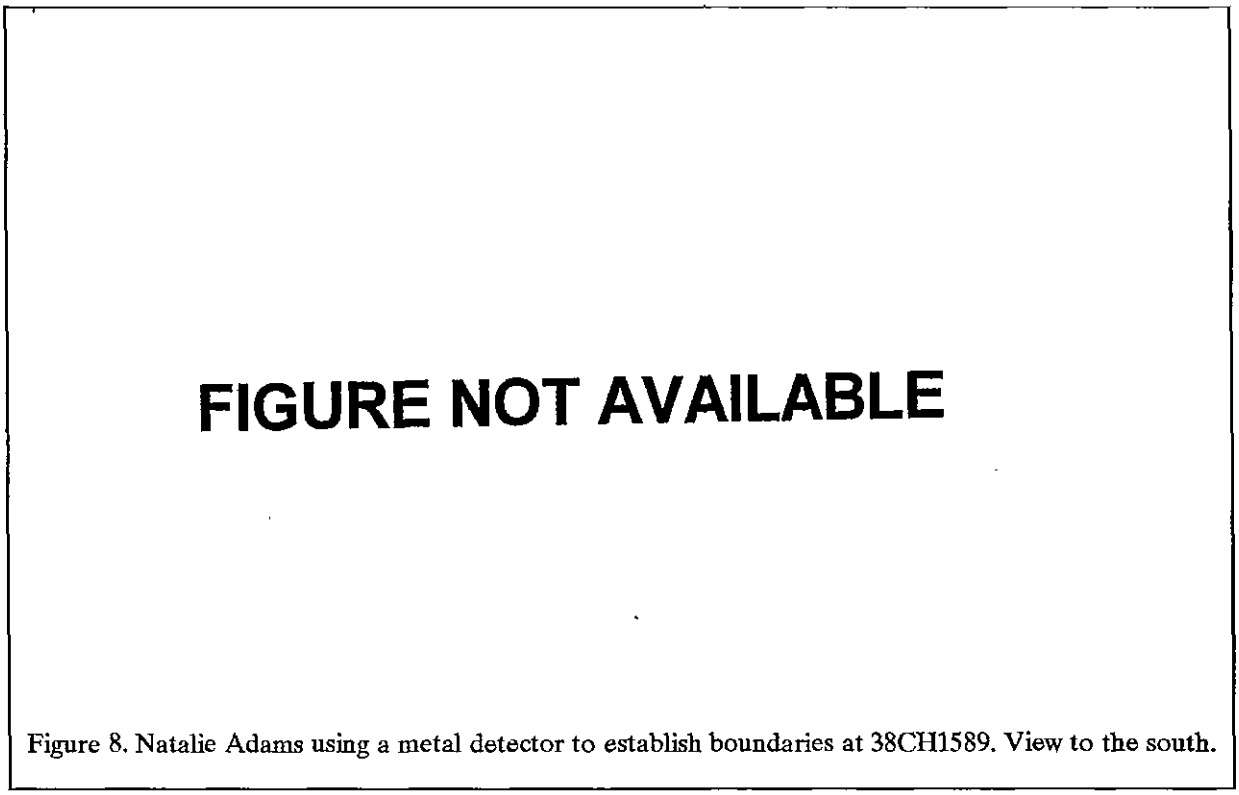

Figure 8. Natalie Adams using a metal detector to establish boundaries at 38CH1589. View to the south.

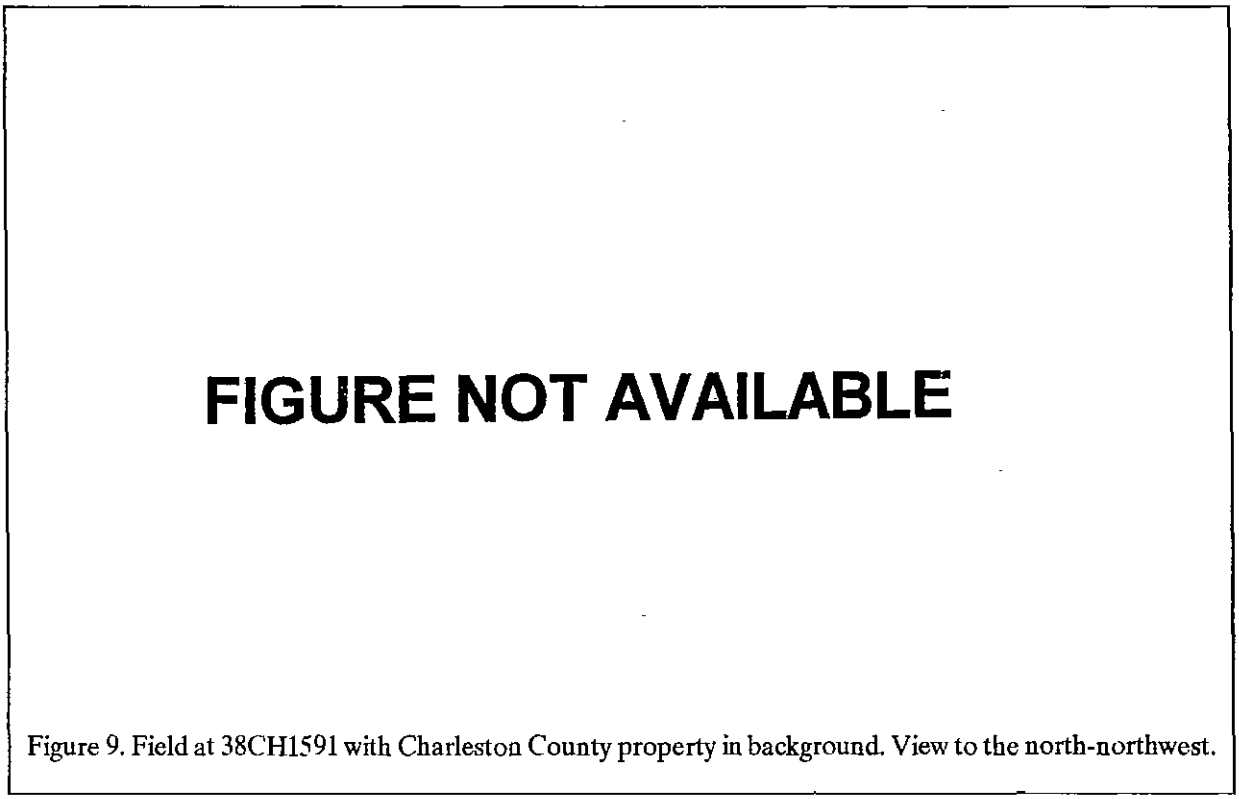

Figure 9. Field at 38CH1591 with Charleston County property in background. View to the north-northwest.

locally abundant. One partially intact, hand-made brick fragment was identified (measuring 4 by 2¾ inches).

The scatter of artifacts (including brick rubble) and the presence of metal detector holes, coupled with our brief metal detector reconnaissance suggests that the site measures at least 250 feet north-south by 200 feet east-west. No effort was made to establish a boundary on the wooded eastern edge.

The proximity of this site to the nearby northern and eastern swamps, the topographic setting on a sandy point encompassed by swamp, and the distance from the Jacksonborough road are all consistent with this depiction of the "Haine" settlement shown by the 1826 Mills' Atlas. In addition, the artifacts, with a late eighteenth and early nineteenth century date are also consistent with the early nineteenth century Hayne ownership of the property. Although additional archaeological study is certainly required, we are inclined to suggest that this site may represent the early antebellum homesite of Robert Young Hayne. We recommend that the site be considered, pending additional historical and archaeological research as potentially eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places.

Site **38CH1590** is situated in a heavily wooded area just north of the Pye's cultivated fields on property owned by Westvaco Timber. The central UTM coordinates are E558000, N3625700. The site is the location of what appears to be an African American cemetery and it is shown on the 7.5' Jacksonboro USGS map. At the time of our visit vegetation was very dense, hindering a complete examination. In spite of this we were able to identify at least two areas of multiple grave depressions, as well as one grave, for Mary Simmions (1882-1933), marked with a head and foot stone. We estimate that the cemetery measures approximately 200 feet in diameter, although no clear boundaries were determined. We have not been able to locate a death record for Mary Simmions (or Simmons) in the DHEC death records filed at the S.C. Department of Archives and History.

Ms. Pye reports that there are at least three additional marked graves, which we were not able to relocate during this brief investigation. She also reports that when the cemetery was first visited there were goods marking several graves, although the number appears to have declined sharply over the past year, and during our reconnaissance we found no evidence of grave goods. The removal of grave goods is a common problem as individuals unknowingly pick items up, intentionally remove items as collectibles, and intentionally seek to reduce the visibility of the cemetery.

At least one small cedar tree was observed during this reconnaissance, suggesting that there may be intentionally planted vegetation associated with the cemetery. It is not uncommon for African-Americans to plant a number of spiritually significant plants in cemeteries. It would be useful to examine this cemetery for carefully for additional evidence of plantings.

This cemetery is situated in an area of poorly drained Youngs soils downslope from the higher, sandy fields to the south. The topographic map suggests that this is a natural drainageway from the higher elevations northwesterly to the rice fields.

Based on this very limited reconnaissance we recommend this site as potentially eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places for the bioarchaeological information it contains. In addition, the site is likely significant for the information it can contribute on African-American mortuary customs, such as grave offerings, vegetative plantings, grave orientations, cemetery landscape, and coffin hardware. In addition to the site's potential significance as a heritage resource, we must also point out that it is protected by South Carolina Code of Laws, §16-17-600, et. seq., relating to cemeteries and human graves. This law makes it a felony to destroy, damage, or desecrate human remains; a misdemeanor to vandalize or desecrate a grave, graveyard, or place where human remains are buried; a misdemeanor to vandalize, injure, or remove a gravestone or other memorial; a misdemeanor to obliterate, vandalize, or desecrate a cemetery or graveyard; and a misdemeanor to destroy or injure plants, trees, shrubs, or other

items associated with a "repository for human remains."

Site **38CH1591** consists of a scatter of prehistoric and historic materials in a field on the Pye's property immediately adjacent to the County's property. The central UTM coordinates are E558040, N3625550. The site area, at the time of the survey, was freshly cultivated, although surface visibility was limited by a lack of recent rainfall (Figure 9). The soils in this area are sandy loams of the Charleston Series, consistent with those found to the west at 38CH1589.

The prehistoric materials include two plain sherds (possibly Early to Middle Woodland Deptford series pottery), two flakes of coastal plain chert, the basal fragment of a Small Savannah River Stemmed projectile point made of coastal plain chert, and one Caraway triangular projectile point. These items appeared (based on this very limited survey) to be concentrated primarily along the eastern edge of the site, adjacent to the windrow and old road separating the Pye's property from that of Charleston County. The historic materials recovered included four "black" glass fragments, all characteristic of ale or wine bottles of the nineteenth century and one kaoline pipestem fragment. These items seemed to be more diffusely scattered across the site.

The site area seems to measure around 200 feet north-south and to extend outward into the field (i.e., to the west from the eastern field edge) about 200 feet. Although it is likely that the site extends through the windrow and into the field to the east this was not explored during our reconnaissance study. Such an examination would require either that the County's fields be disced to permit better visibility or, alternatively, that intensive shovel testing be undertaken.

Based on the limited information available concerning this site we cannot offer any recommendation, other than that additional investigations are necessary.

Site **38CH1592** consists of a scatter of historic artifacts and the presence of in situ brick piers associated with the Pye's residence. The central UTM coordinates are E557850, N3625230 and the site is found an area which is either open or in low yard grass. The soils are well-drained Wagram sandy loams and artifacts were collected from small open areas or from the dripline around the extant house.

Two brick piers were observed just below the existing ground level on the western side of the Pye's house (Figure 10). These may relate to an earlier structure which, according to tradition, burned. Architectural debris thought to be associated with this original structure can be seen as mounds in the woods on the northwestern edge of the grassed yard. The one pier which was most clearly defined seems to be consistent with a frame structure. The bricks are consistent with those associated with at least late nineteenth century sites.

The artifacts associated with the site, based on materials collected by the Pye's from their yard, appear to be primarily whitewares (many blue transfer printed specimens) and bottle glass. During this survey we collected four cut nail fragments, four unidentifiable nail fragments, one "black" glass fragment, three fragments of burnt glass, two fragments of ginger beer bottle, six plain whiteware ceramics, one sponge decorated whiteware ceramic, and one kettle fragment. These items suggest a late antebellum or early postbellum date range. For example, the cut nails were fist manufactured in the late 1830s and continue to be used today. The ginger beer bottle ware dates as early as about 1820 and continues into the early 1900s. The whiteware ceramics may date as early as about 1813, but are still produced today. The one fragment of sponge decorated whiteware might have been manufactured between 1836 and as late as 1870. The materials were recovered from an area measuring, minimally, 200 feet in diameter.

Curiously, only one item has been recovered from this site which might be considered "early." During rehabilitation efforts the Pye's unearthed a utensil fragment which consists of the shank and a portion of the bowl of what today would be considered a "table" spoon. Although the bowl is largely missing, the remnant portion suggests an oval form, post-dating the seventeenth century. The drop present on the underside of the bowl is broad. The handle shape has a tipped

FIGURE NOT AVAILABLE

Figure 10. Pier identified at 38CH1592, roughly cleaned.

FIGURE NOT AVAILABLE

Figure 11. Oak allee at 38CH1592, showing alignment, size of oaks, and extant house. View to the north.

fiddle shape post-dates about 1740. The handle also evidences squared shoulders. These projections above the bowl on the handle are often thought to date from the third quarter of the eighteenth century on. There is also a short midrib on the back of the handle. On the whole, the spoon appears to date from the eighteenth century. On the back of the handle are a series of five marks. One is the silversmith's mark, roman "M.C." in a rectangle. Mark Cripps, a London silversmith is documented to have used his initials in a small rectangular punch on a 1767 piece (MacDonald-Taylor 1962:88). The other three provide considerably more detail. The first is a "hall" or "town" mark, a Leopard's head, for London, the location of the assay office. This is followed by a "standard" mark, a lion walking to the left, which indicates that the silver is of sterling quality and most likely post-dates 1719. The third and final mark is the annual date letter. Each assay office allocated its own specific letter for each year. The letter on the spoon indicates a 1756 date (Belden 1980; Nöel Hume 1978; Miller and Miller 1988).

While it appears that the spoon recovered from this site dates from the second half of the eighteenth century based on its marks, as well as its form, it is the only early eighteenth century item observed in the collection. Everything else has a mid to late nineteenth century appearance. The only exception to this is the oak allee which appears to lead up to the site (Figure 11). Mr. P.O. Mead, of Mead's Tree Service, dated the trees from 180 to 260 years in age, based on their dbh (diameter breast height, which ranges from 50 to 85 inches). While imprecise, this age range suggests that the trees may have been planted between 1815 and 1735. Although considerably more work is required, it is possible that this site is not, as previously thought, the Hayne plantation settlement, but rather dates from the late antebellum or early postbellum ownership of perhaps the Kings. It was not uncommon for plantation settlements to move away from the swamp edge as the significance of the swamp "miasma" became better understood in the late antebellum.

This site is recommended as potentially eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places. The presence of intact architectural remains and the large quantity of artifacts associated with the site suggest that the site is well preserved. If, as we have suggested, there is a movement of the Encampment settlement away from the rice fields, this site (as well as 38CH1589) become especially important since they allow us to examine the plantation and the associated changes across time.

Site **38CH1593** is a scatter of historic materials in a cultivated field north of site 38CH1592. At the time of this survey the field was in corn and surface collection conditions were limited. The Pye's however, have a relatively large collection of materials from this site and this allowed inspection of a more representative collection.

The central UTM coordinates are E557830, N3625320. The soils were of the relatively light and sandy Wagram series. Materials were found along the edge of the field, by the dirt farm road, for a distance of about 200 feet north-south. Observed remains included several brick fragments. Recovered materials include one undecorated whiteware and one annular whiteware. The Pye's collection includes a large quantity of annular whitewares, consistent with the two ceramics collected during this visit. The materials are of the same age as those collected from 38CH1592, although the decorative motif is typically considered to be of a lower status and is often associated with slave settlements. This suggests that 38CH1593 may be a slave row situated behind (i.e., north of) the main settlement.

Although we had the opportunity to discern little about this site, its seeming association with 38CH1592 and its possible function as a slave settlement causes us to recommend it as potentially eligible for inclusion on the National Register. Although dating from the late antebellum, this site may be able to provide information on the lives of slaves at a plantation on the verge of exhaustion. We would presume that as the economic viability of a plantation declined, so too did the owner's care and attention toward his slaves, yet this is untested. We know relatively little about how the owner's fortunes affected the lives of his slaves.

Reported Sites

In addition to these five sites which were

actually visited, we were also told of several more in the immediate area. There are several other scatters of historic remains reported by the Pyes to be in their fields. Of even greater interest, a nearby property owner – Mr. Garvin – reports growing up in the area. He remembers that there were two structures standing in the field currently owned by the County, both of which were torn down in the 1940s. These likely represent tenant farmsteads. He also recalls his father telling him of a "row of houses" to the north side of the rice fields, also on County property. These may represent a remnant of a slave settlement, or may represent postbellum housing for black phosphate workers. His own dwelling as a child was to the west of the extant plantation house, on the Pye's property and Mr. Garvin recalls that during the late 1930s there were a number of different buildings scattered around on the property.

This information emphasizes the complexity of the Encampment tract and seems to confirm what we already expected – that the plantation will present an extraordinary range of occupation spanning the prehistoric and historic periods. It would be a mistake to oversimplify the diachronic aspect of the plantation by viewing it in a synchronic fashion.

RECOMMENDATIONS

This brief reconnaissance has substantively fulfilled the initially outlined goals. We have had the opportunity to explore at least some of the heritage resources present on the Encampment tract. Five archaeological sites (38CH1589 through 38CH1593) have been recorded with the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology, including one on the County's adjacent tract, one on property belonging to Westvaco, and three on property owned by the Pye's. These sites represent a range of temporal and cultural associations, including prehistoric material dating as early as about A.D. 500, historic remains from the last quarter of the eighteenth through the first quarter of the nineteenth century, historic remains from the late antebellum or early postbellum, and a cemetery dating from at least the early twentieth century (and likely originating in at least the early postbellum, if not antebellum). The sites and materials recovered represent the remains of Native Americans, African-Americans, and Euro-Americans. At least four of these sites have been recommended as potentially eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places. There are also accounts of additional sites on Encampment (taken to include the property owned by the Pyes and the County).

We believe that we were able to gather sufficient data to offer at least preliminary heritage resource planning recommendations. It would be irresponsible to do other than emphasize that these must be viewed as preliminary. As more information is obtained concerning these, and other, resources present on the tract it will be possible, even essential, to re-evaluate these recommendations. Further, it is important for us to stress also that these recommendations are offered as our best professional judgement. They are not offered as legal recommendations or observations. Neither are they offered as representing any regulatory authority. Chicora Foundation has no special authority, or commission, to offer judgements on compliance procedures or efforts. On the other hand, given that these recommendations are offered by professionals with combined experience and expertise of nearly 40 years, we believe that they are valid and worthy of due consideration.

There seems to be no evidence of unusual damage to the tract. It has not, for example, been completely mined for phosphate. It evidences no unusually deep plowing history (although we have not verified surface observations and oral history through excavations). There is no indication that the site has been frequented by looters or metal detector enthusiasts. In sum, we see no immediate indication that the archaeological integrity of the tract has been compromised.

There are ample historical resources available to conduct at least minimal historical research. While we would not wish to have this interpreted as implying that sites absent historical records are worthless, we do believe that at least some minimal historical background helps in the process of site identification and assessment.

There are a range of archaeological resources, allowing a broad spectrum of archaeological research questions to be addressed. These minimally include plantation settlement during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, postbellum phosphate works, and perhaps twentieth century tenancy. Of special interest is the possibility that Encampment contains early and late plantation settlements. At least one prehistoric site has been encountered and it seems likely, based on our knowledge of similar localities, that other Native American sites will be identified.

In sum, it is our opinion that the Encampment Plantation has exceptional archaeological potential.

Prior to considering our very general recommendations concerning the property, it is

appropriate to briefly mention that heritage resources may be appropriately appraised in a fashion different from most others. Appendix 1 provides an overview of this process and should be carefully considered.

In addition, I should point out that the Tax Reform Act of 1986 establishes a 20% tax credit for rehabilitation of historic buildings for commercial, industrial and rental residential purposes and a 10% tax credit for the substantial rehabilitation for nonresidential purposes of buildings built before 1936. In addition, it provides a straight-line depreciation period of 27.5 years for residential property and 31.5 years for nonresidential property for the depreciable basis of the rehabilitated building reduced by the amount of the tax credit claimed. There are a number of additional conditions, including requirements that the structures be determined significant and that the work be conducted to certain minimal standards. Additional information concerning this topic is available from either the S.C. State Historic Preservation Office (803/734-8611) or the Southeast Regional Office of the National Park Service, Preservation Tax Incentives Division (404/331-2632).

Our first recommendation, therefore, is relatively general. We believe that ***the plantation tract, if at all possible, deserves long-term preservation.*** South Carolina's heritage resources are being destroyed at an alarming rate. And while new archaeological sites representing our own society are being created daily, there are no "new" sites being created by "yesterday's" society. In this sense archaeological resources are more fragile, and non-renewable, than most any other environmental resource. Trees can be replanted and endangered species, with proper breeding, can be re-established. Archaeological sites, however, can never be re-created once destroyed. Preservation is always the preferred option. "Banking" sites for future generations may have a wide range of positive side-benefits -- providing open space for the public, offering protected land for wildlife habitats, and even reducing the demands on public agencies for infrastructure.

Considering the Pye's property this suggests several actions. Cultivation should avoid the use of subsoiling or chisel plows which tend to till considerably deeper than conventional discing. Some consideration should be given to the possibility of using "no-till" options which would even further minimize damage to archaeological resources. In addition, cultivation should follow good practices, such as avoiding the use of equipment which the fields are wet.

While I do not believe there is much timber on the Pye's property, care should be taken if the property is ever logged. Ideally an archaeological survey should first be conducted to identify specific site areas which can be avoided by logging. If this is not possible there are still options for minimizing damage. Only rubber tire equipment should be used. Logging should take place only in dry weather to minimize compaction and rutting. Skidder paths should be varied to prevent areas of extensive damage. Staging areas should also be carefully evaluated and placed to avoid potential archaeological sites. Often as much damage is caused by replanting timber lands as was caused in their harvest. Natural reseeding is the most appropriate choice, but if this is not possible other steps should be taken to minimize damage to below ground archaeological resources.

Ideally materials from the fields should not be collected since even this activity depletes the archaeological record. In spite of this, I understand that materials will be picked up. Consequently, an effort should be made to maintain materials from different fields as distinct collections. They should not, for example, be co-mingled. This will help ensure that materials can be associated with specific occupations in the future.

An effort should be made to maintain the integrity of the landscape. The Keeper of the National Register has recently recognized the importance of the rural landscape and McClelland et al. (n.d.) have developed guidelines for incorporating landscapes into the National Register process. There are a number of potential threats to the historic landscape, including the loss of current vegetation (such as the oak allee), the loss of current structures (such as the Pye residence and barn), or the construction of new buildings or structures, or the loss of associated archaeological sites.

If preservation is not possible, then our second broad recommendation is that ***the property deserves very careful professional archaeological investigation.*** In compliance terms this means that the tract deserves, first, an intensive archaeological survey meeting or exceeding the *Guidelines and Standards for Archaeological Investigations* established by the S.C. State Historic Preservation Office and second, an intensive evaluation of the historic documents. Our brief reconnaissance has demonstrated the possible existence of other sites on the County's portion of Encampment through both field survey and informant history. It would be premature to focus attention on one site, or a perhaps even a portion of one site, without fully understanding the complexity of the entire property.

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APPENDIX 1.
APPRAISING HISTORIC PROPERTIES
REPRINT

PRESERVATION
information
One in a series of Historic Preservation Information Booklets

Appraising Historic Properties

by Judith Reynolds

Appraisers today still find the valuation of historic properties a challenge even though this type of assignment has become much more common over the past three decades. One reason may be that the appraisal of historic properties generally is not treated in standard textbooks. Take *The Appraisal of Real Estate*[1] for example; in the Tenth Edition there are several brief allusions to historic districts and preservation easements, but no explanation of the general (or specific) application of appraisal techniques to historic properties.

INSIDE

The Appraisal Journal[2] does better—over the past 20 years this quarterly has published more than two dozen articles on historic properties. Most of these articles, however, concern a particular facet of an appraisal problem or the complexities of preservation easement appraisals.

On the other hand, appraisers who are knowledgeable about historic properties carry out functions that often mystify the general public. Not only is the public unfamiliar with standard appraisal methodology, but expectations regarding the appraiser's role range from the assumption that the appraiser is an authority on American history and architecture, an expert in construction techniques, an appraiser of furnishings, and a master of the national market for such properties, to the equally invalid assumption that the appraiser should not be required to apply basic theories of real property valuation to something so extraordinary as a historic property. Gone are the days, furthermore, when the public unquestioningly respected an appraiser's opinion. Today the judgment of all professionals—engineers, architects, lawyers, and doctors—is often questioned, sometimes for cause. This booklet clarifies the appraiser's role and the methodology that produces the correct appraisal of a historic property. It is meant for appraisers, for those who own or administer historic properties, and for all those who are interested in the link between history and the associated real estate.

The Unique Role of Historic Properties

Historic properties are a singular part of the nation's cultural inheritance. This, however, creates an uncommon kind of difficulty. People hold conflicting perceptions about historic properties because such properties play a dual role, both as cultural assets and as real estate.

Ownership and use of private property traditionally and constitutionally has been protected in the United States as a basic individual right. In 1978, however, the Supreme Court ruled in the Grand Central railroad terminal case against the property owner and in favor of New York City and its landmarks law, thus establishing the premise that the public has an interest in private property simply because it is historic.

When it was built (1903-1913), Grand Central Station was designed as a base for a 20-story office tower. In the mid-1970s, however, the New York City Landmarks Preservation Commission denied the Penn Central Transportation Company's application for the construction of a 55-story office tower above the station. Penn Central Company appealed this decision to the New York Supreme Court, alleging that the city had taken property rights without the constitutionally-specified just compensation. The court found that the landmarks law as it applied to

the station was unconstitutional. The Appellate Division of the New York Supreme Court then reversed this decision, ruling that the landmarks law did not constitute a taking of property without compensation. The New York Court of Appeals upheld this latter decision. Penn Central then appealed to the U.S. Supreme Court, asking both for removal of the prohibition on construction of the office tower and damages for the "temporary taking" of its air rights from the date of the landmark designation in 1967. The dissenting opinion[3] avowed that a taking had occurred in that the costs of historic preservation, in this case millions of dollars, were imposed on an individual property owner rather than on taxpayers in general. But the majority findings affirmed the decision of the Court of Appeals, i.e., the landmarks law did not constitute a taking because development rights above the station could be transferred to other sites nearby and because it was possible that some other plan for the air rights above the terminal might be approved by the city.

Landmarks laws were strengthened, and in some cases enacted, as a result of the Penn Central decision. The decision changed the way appraisers looked at highest and best use when a landmark property was involved. Highest and best use was not the most profitable use legally permitted in every case; the public's interest in a property's cultural qualities had to be considered.

The historic and economic qualities of historic properties easily can be at odds with one another. The quality of being historic often enhances the value of a property, provided there is market demand for the uses to which the property can be put. However, beyond the factor of demand per se, there are degrees of market demand. Often existing historic structures are obstacles to the use for which there is the greatest market demand.

The Grand Central terminal case is illustrative: Historic preservation interfered with the economic utilization of land, thereby creating difficulties for both preservationists and appraisers. Whereas the former tend to view historic qualities as invaluable, the latter may view them as unvaluable. For appraisers, reconciling the principles of land economics with the public's interest in these properties is the challenge.

When Is An Appraisal Necessary?

Appraisals of historic property are required for a variety of reasons. The most obvious instances are buyers and sellers wishing to establish a base for contemplated transactions or financial institutions considering a mortgage. Other reasons include takings or purchases by government agencies, tax deductions taken for donations of historic property in fee simple or as partial interests, legal proceedings such as divorce or bankruptcy, estate taxes, insurable value, contesting ad valorem assessments, periodical reporting to investors, and decisions about investing money in upkeep or restoration. Most often appraisals are required when individuals or organizations need to justify to one or more parties some action taken or about to be taken. Appraisals can also be desirable when a property owner simply wants to know the market value of his or her property as of a given date.

Finding a Qualified Appraiser

Finding appraisers who have expertise in historic properties requires some effort. All states now have licensing programs. Since January 1, 1993, federal law has required that all appraisals involving "federally-related mortgage transactions" (a transaction in which a lender supervised by a federal government agency is involved) must be made by state-licensed or certified appraisers.[4] In some states, known as mandatory states, *all* real estate appraisals, whether involved with federally-related mortgage transactions or not, must be made by licensed or certified appraisers.

Levels of appraisal licensure vary from state to state depending on the types and values of properties to be appraised. Generally, however, *Licensed Residential Appraisers* are those qualified by the state to appraise single-family dwellings with values under one million dollars and two-to-four-family apartment properties with values under $250,000.[5] *Certified Residential Appraisers*, in those states where the category exists, are qualified to appraise all single-family dwellings, all one-to-four-family apartment properties, and in some states, other small properties. *Certified General Appraisers* are qualified to appraise all types of properties. All states require appraisers to adhere to a federal code of minimum requirements for appraisal opinions and appraisal reports, the *Uniform Standards of Professional Appraisal Practice.*

Licensing or certification is only the basic level of an appraiser's credentials. Appraisers may earn designations awarded by professional organizations such as the Appraisal Institute, which is an amalgamation of two of the oldest professional appraisal organizations in the country—the American Institute of Real Estate Appraisers and the Society of Real Estate Appraisers. The Appraisal Institute awards the MAI (Member Appraisal Institute) to those individuals qualified to appraise all types of property and the SRA (Senior Residential Appraiser) to those who specialize in dwelling house appraisals.

There are a number of other professional appraisal organizations. The American Society of Appraisers, for example, includes individuals who specialize in historic properties as well as individuals who specialize in the appraisal of personal property, including fine art and other furnishings. Members of the various professional organizations must conform to the *Uniform Standards of Professional Appraisal Practice* as a condition of their designation.

Neither an appraisal license nor a professional designation ensures that an appraiser will be proficient in appraising historic properties. An appraisal license or certification

guarantees a certain minimum level of competence in appraisal theory, which the appraiser has demonstrated by passing a written examination, taking appraisal courses, and completing appraisal assignments. Appraisers with professional designations have demonstrated a higher level of competence that varies with the prerequisites for the particular designation. Many non-designated appraisers, however, are competent to appraise historic properties. Competence varies more with individuals than with designations or licenses. Specialists are usually individuals who have been drawn to historic properties through personal interest or education or because of a demand for such services locally.

Although some appraisers have expertise in construction methodology, blueprint reading, electrical and mechanical systems, or in the unusual construction materials and designs of past eras, others may need assistance from architects or professional building inspectors. Sometimes historic sites and buildings contain environmental hazards such as asbestos and other contaminants that need to be recognized and quantified by someone more expert than an appraiser.

To locate qualified appraisers, contact attorneys, bankers, government agencies that are involved with historic properties, preservation organizations, and other appraisers. A well-regarded appraiser in the locality of the property in question more than likely will be able to identify competent appraisers who specialize in historic properties. Many such specialists are willing to travel throughout the country to perform the work.

Identifying Historic Properties

What properties can be identified as historic? All old properties are not necessarily historic. If history is defined as meaning the documentation of past events, historic means an association with those events. In real estate, the quality of being historic is relative. Mount Vernon, for example has great historic significance whereas a typical structure in an historic district possesses less historic significance. The word historic implies an association with some event or person, but there are other denoters, such as cultural expression or architecture. Whereas land is historic because of its associations—battlefields, archeological sites[6], sites of existing historic or culturally significant structures—buildings can be historic both because of their associations with history or culture and because of their architecture. Architecture, cultural history, and association with events and individuals may be present alone or in any combination in historic properties.

Although some buildings are clearly historic, the significance of others can be elusive. For instance, most people recognize the fine brick and stone county courthouses built in the 1880s and 1890s in western Kansas as historic. Less obvious perhaps are the stone commercial structures built by the Works Progress Administration in the 1930s. Both types are characteristic of an important period in Kansas history. However, whereas the courthouses are a central feature of each county and hence more likely to be preserved, the 20th-century stone stores and office buildings are less prominent, more numerous, and more often neglected. As these buildings become increasingly rare, they will perhaps grow to be more appreciated. Historic significance frequently increases as threats to specific types of historic properties multiply.

The historic significance of many buildings stems from their role in state or local history such as the historic stone buildings in western Kansas.

Documentation of Historic Properties

Various registers identify and document historic properties and provide descriptive information. The National Register of Historic Places, maintained by the National Park Service, was established to identify and record the history of the significant American properties and remains the ultimate list of significant properties.[7]

Applications to the National Register are processed at the state historic preservation office. National Register forms include a description and architectural history of the building. The SHPO also conducts an ongoing process of research and preparation of case studies. Properties may be listed in the state landmarks list and not in the National Register. Appraisers can turn to the state historic preservation office to verify designations and other information regarding specific properties.

The National Architectural and Engineering Record, an amalgamation of the Historic American Buildings Survey (HABS) and the Historic American Engineering Record, documents in detail many historic properties. The Historic American Buildings Survey was established during the Great Depression to provide work for architects, draftsmen, and photographers. A typical survey consists of photographs, measured drawings, and a narrative description. The originals of the drawings and photographs are kept in the Library of Congress in the Prints and Photographs Division. In 1958 the American Society of Civil Engineers developed the Historic American Engineering Record to add such engineering feats as bridges and dams to the work of HABS documented in the Library of Congress.

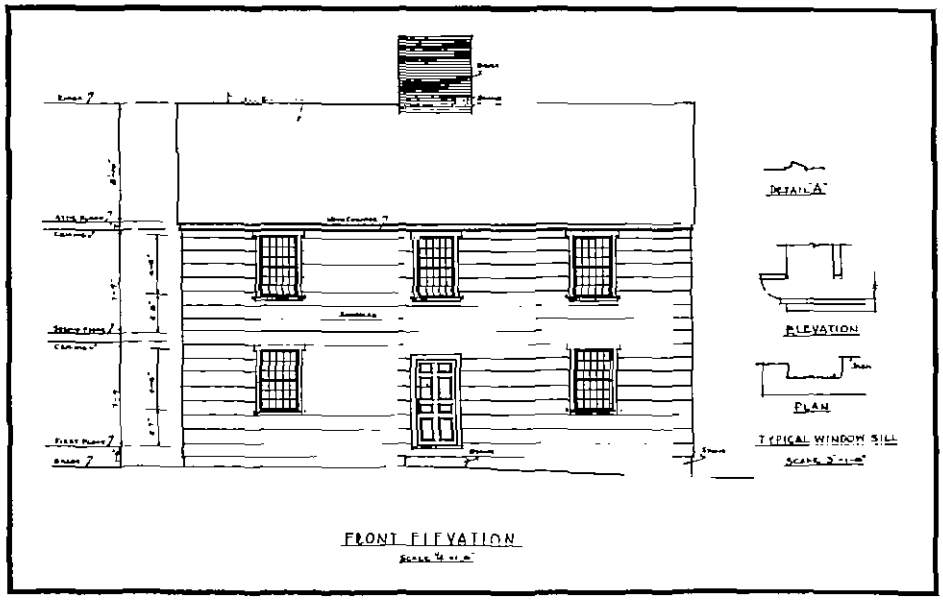
Appraisers may find municipal historic preservation boards or commissions helpful. These boards generally must approve proposed changes, new construction, and demolition in historic districts before permits can be obtained. The scope of review varies with the jurisdiction. Some control all structural changes and all new construction; others are concerned only with exterior changes to buildings constructed before a given point in time. As a result of these responsibilities, commissions usually maintain documentation on existing historic structures and districts as well as details of proposed changes.

Historical societies in counties and municipalities also have information on historic properties. These organizations often maintain libraries of reference books and articles on local properties.

An architectural historian, botanist, archeologist, environmentalist, or other specialist can help research the provenance and current condition of a historic property. Architectural historians, for example, can provide technical descriptions and histories of properties that are not otherwise documented. These experts know how to research building histories in archival records and are versed in architectural description.

Working regularly with historic properties justifies assembling an appraisal library of reference sources: books on types of architecture, on the work of prominent architects, on local landmarks, and on the history of the primary area in which the appraiser works. Public libraries can augment or serve this purpose as well.

Not surprisingly, another source of information about historic properties, although sometimes overlooked by appraisers, may be owners or former owners. Many have assembled more relevant information than is available elsewhere. Keep in mind, however, that this information may be exaggerated or inaccurate. Owners of historic properties are frequently knowledgeable about other properties in the area that can be used for comparison purposes.



The Historic American Buildings Survey documents in detail many historic properties.

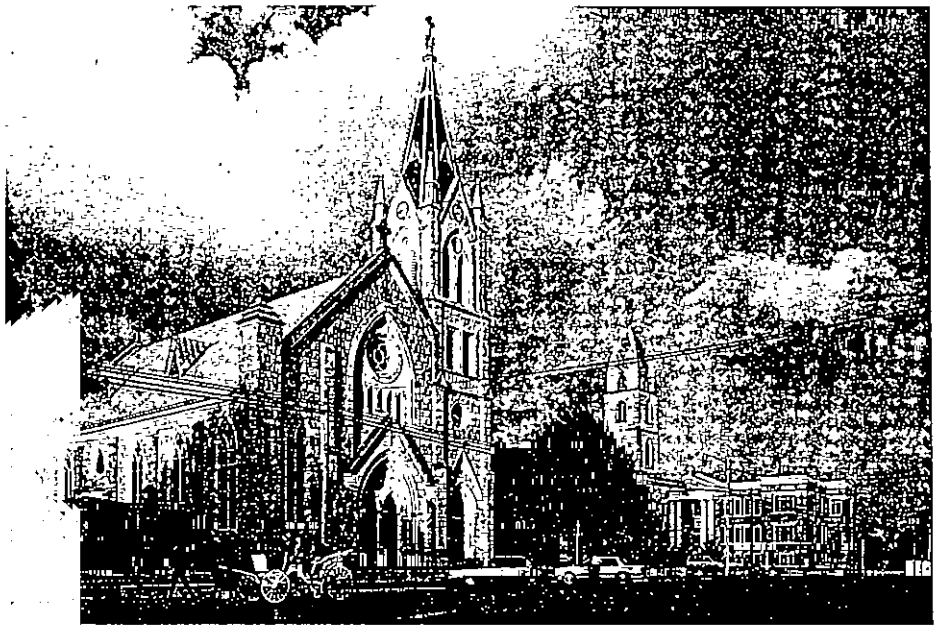


photo: Steven Pumphrey

The increased tourism in Fredericksburg, Tex. has provided an economic benefit to the city.

The Benefits and Costs of Owning Historic Properties

Ownership of a historic property may convey certain benefits under federal, state, or local laws, and it is important for appraisers to be aware of these benefits. Legal benefits are usually tied to National Register listings. Properties that are not individually listed in the National Register of Historic Places, but are located within listed historic districts, must be certified as contributory to the district in order to be eligible for such benefits. Appraisers should identify any local, state, or national designation and identify the effects of the specific designation or designations.

Although National Register listing confers enormous prestige, not all property owners consider it a benefit. Listing provides the opportunity for financial benefits and may increase the property's value, but also may bring unwanted attention to owners who wish to alter or even demolish properties, or who simply do not want the public's interest in their private property. It is important to realize that a National Register listing in and of itself, does not prevent alteration or demolition; only local ordinances, albeit usually tied to landmark register listing, provide such controls.

One of the benefits available to income-producing historic properties that undergo rehabilitation is a reduction in federal income taxes equal to a portion of the rehabilitation cost. The rehabilitation must to be carried out and then certified as conforming to the Secretary of the Interior's *Standards for Rehabilitation and Guidelines for Rehabilitating Historic Buildings.*

Another benefit of owning a listed property, residential or income-producing, is the opportunity to donate a preservation easement to a qualified charitable organization. The decrease in market value resulting from restrictions imposed on the property through the easement can be deducted from federal income taxes. The donation may also result in reductions of property and inheritance taxes. To establish a basis for the income tax deduction, the donated rights must be surrendered in perpetuity and there must be a reduction in the market value of the property. The market value of the property is estimated pre-easement and post-easement; the difference between the states is the amount of reduction. Some jurisdictions exempt the rights donated from ad valorem assessments and tax only the retained rights. Other jurisdictions tax all of the property rights despite the fact that the easement restrictions are held by another party. Property owners may be interested in donating easements to obtain tax deductions or to protect their property, or most likely, for some combination of these two reasons.

Historic property owners may also qualify for state and local benefits. Some states provide interest-free or low-interest loans for rehabilitation of historic properties. Municipalities may provide a reduction in ad valorem taxes in return for the restoration of a historic structure that might not otherwise be restored. An example of a historic property preservation project receiving local benefits is the Warner Theatre in Washington, D.C. The restoration costs for the theater were partly offset by a low-interest municipal loan and a moratorium on real estate taxes for a period of five years.

Tax reductions, low-interest loans, and other benefits affect the market value of historic properties. Government subsidies of this type allow investors to accept lower initial returns on their investment. Such benefits, however, are not necessarily transferable to the next buyer and may support an increment in market value for only a limited period of time.

The Frank Lloyd Wright Home and Studio in Oak Park, Ill., demonstrates the development of Wright's architectural style over a period of time. The Home (shown in the photo) exemplifies Wright's early work. The Studio was built nine years later.

photo: Don Kalec, courtesy of the Frank Lloyd Wright Home and Studio

Certain market factors such as tourism also benefit owners of historic properties. History-related tourism can have an enormous economic benefit on a locality; it provides increased revenues to retailers, hoteliers, theater owners, restaurateurs, art gallery and museum owners, and transportation providers. In recent years, the development of individual historic properties and historic districts has become a predominant feature of the tourist industry in the United States. Charleston, S.C. and Boston are outstanding examples of cities that have long attracted large numbers of tourists because of their historic districts. Less well-known examples are the historic districts of Fredericksburg and other Hill Country towns in Texas and the water-oriented villages of the Eastern Shore of Maryland such as Oxford and St. Michaels. In Lewes, Del., historic buildings, some dating back to the 17th century, combine with water access and small-town charm to attract visitors. Small towns in almost every part of the country emphasize their historic core areas in order to draw visitors. This effort often coincides with a return of merchants to the downtown areas that suffered neglect when shopping centers and other highway-oriented businesses were developed outside traditional downtown areas.

Historic properties are typical in the bed-and-breakfast industry, and rehabilitated period buildings also serve as larger hotels. Staying in a historic hotel or inn is an attractive alternative that appeals to many people as evidenced by the proliferation of these facilities. In addition, historical attractions increase the recreational and educational appeal of any given area. Touring and learning about historic areas provides a theme or character to a visit. This increased interest in historic properties can result in higher sale prices to owner-occupants and higher rents to owners of investment properties.

All of these enhancements can increase market value. On the other hand, the potential for greater costs associated with owning a historic property is always a possibility and must be considered by appraisers. Age and fragility of construction materials, especially decorative elements, can increase maintenance costs, and high ceilings can increase utility costs. The responsibility of conforming to public expectations relative to the care and uses of historic properties is another factor in the potentially greater costs and risks of owning a historic property.

Basic Valuation Principles

Most appraisals of historic properties are estimates of market value. Market value is the worth of a specific property produced by the balance of interaction between buyers, sellers, tenants, lenders, financial markets, and governments, at a stipulated point in time.[8] The market's appreciation for historic properties is a factor in market value. The same economic principles that apply to the appraisal of other types of properties apply to historic properties. They may, however, be applied differently.

The *principle of economic use*, generally expressed by the term highest and best use, is the driving force of real estate valuation—a property for which there is no known potential use has little if any market value. Property value increases as the uses that can be made of a property increasingly conform to the uses for which there is maximum demand and as buildings approach the maximums permitted by the zoning of the land, as long as there is demand for those maximums.

The concept of economic use is strongly related to land value, and it underlies the neglect and demolition of historic properties in the past,

particularly during the period of the 1950s and 1960s when modernism and urban renewal set standards for architecture and community planning. The principle operates as follows: even though a site is already improved with a building or buildings, if the land, were it vacant and if demolition is legally permitted, could be improved with a different building or buildings capable of producing a greater value for the owner, the inclination of the marketplace is to seek that new building. This potential for maximum utilization of the land is what primarily determines its value. The greater value attending redevelopment results from a combination of two factors: the greater potential density that can be developed on the site and the potential superior physical condition of the new building that can be built.

Land value alone can easily exceed the value of the whole property as improved with a historic building, particularly if the density of the existing building is less than the maximum permitted by the site. In fact, the presence of the old building requires that a deduction equal to the cost of its demolition be made from the land's value. For example, presume that a 30,000-square-foot site in an area of 12-story office and retail buildings has a value of $500 per square foot or $15,000,000 if it were vacant. The market value of the property is $15,000,000 minus whatever it costs to demolish the building, say $700,000, leaving $14,300,000 as the market value of the property. This is a far greater value than the value the property is likely to be as improved with an old building, particularly one that is well below the maximum density and in deteriorated physical condition. For instance, a 90,000-square-foot building at say, $100 per gross square foot produces a total property value of $9,000,000. In this type of situation, demolition, if legal, was always, in the past, economically indicated.

The preservation movement, however, has brought about a gentler interpretation of the principle of highest and best use. First of all, demolition often is not legally possible. Highest and best use was always, to appraisers, not only the most profitable use, but the most profitable use that was legally permitted (also physically practicable and financially feasible). Secondly, today preservation is often sufficiently desirable in terms of public interest, public taste, and public subsidies to make preservation financially more feasible. Thirdly, now that architectural trends have moved away from the stark modernism of the post World War II period, historic buildings are now more compatible with new buildings. Historic buildings are not only more acceptable generally, they are now more readily incorporated into new projects. Appraisers are guided by the principle of economic use in all appraisal assignments, but must modify its traditional application where legal or cultural constraints (or some combination of the two) effectively rule out demolition as an alternative.

Still, legal and economic factors primarily govern the use and value of land. Public resistance to the creation of historic districts often centers on the principle of economic use. Historic districts subject to regulations concerning demolition, alteration, and new construction are viewed as deterrents to the new development that some people see as economically and socially desirable. Conflict often results from the opposing objectives of two groups of citizens who both believe they have the good of society foremost in mind.

Highest and best, or most economic, use analysis applies to the property as improved as well as to the site alone. Historic buildings may or may not be the most economic use of the land, but if they are, there are further considerations. Some historic buildings combine varying architectural styles. The highest and best use of a historic property might mandate removing inharmonious components that are inappropriate for the period the building was constructed.

On the other hand, some historic properties are prized because they demonstrate successive styles of architecture. Examples include the Frank Lloyd Wright Home and Studio in Oak Park, Illinois, which demonstrates the development of Wright's architectural style over a period of time and Mackall Square in the Georgetown section of Washington D.C., which consists of a series of connected dwelling sections, each successive one representing a later era and style. The normal standards of building compatibility and conformance, which require architectural consistency within a single structure, do not apply in these cases.

The *principle of change*, which states that change is inevitable and continuous in real estate markets, is very evident in the case of historic buildings that are no longer usable as they were designed or intended. Fortunately the real estate market has for the most part accepted historic preservation as a permanent factor and has developed economic ways to utilize historic structures. Some of these adaptive uses capture full economic use and others are compromises. An ornate old mansion located in an office building zone that permits, and is improved with, elevator office buildings, is an example of a change in predominant as well as permitted use. The mansion has become obsolete in terms of the economic use of the site. Such a building perhaps can be converted to office use without altering its historic character, but its conversion to office use represents a compromise, an underutilization of the land. In an earlier time, when the demand for office space was almost exclusively related to modern design and functional utility, such buildings, where no one any longer wanted to live, were neglected and often razed.

Sometimes public veneration has imposed the change. In the case of Grand Central Station, although the building had been designed to serve as a railroad station and base for an office tower, people had come to revere the building as it was and saw the construction of a skyscraper on top of the terminal as desecrating its appearance and history. The principle of change had operated to change the perception of a building that was still appropriate for its designed use into a cultural icon that should not be altered in any way.

The *principle of contribution* should always be considered in the analysis of historic properties. The cost of restoration, removal, or repair of deteriorated properties should be analyzed in relation to the contribution of the rehabilitation to the as-rehabilitated value of the property. For instance, if the cost of bringing a historic building into usable condition is $600,000, but the property, including the land, is worth only $500,000 as rehabilitated, the repairs would cost more than their contribution and are non-economic. Costs should be weighed, not only against potential sale price and earning ability, but also against income and other tax benefits.

The *principle of supply and demand* causes real estate prices for a particular property to vary according the supply of, and demand for, similar properties. Historic properties cannot be created to meet demand and consequently their rarity operates to enhance their value relative to properties that can be reproduced. Supply and demand must be considered within the specific context of the appraised property's market. Market demand varies from locale to locale and a much greater demand exists for historic properties that can be put to popular uses such as bed-and-breakfasts or inns in scenic semi-rural areas where tourism is prevalent.

The market value of property traditionally is thought to be created by the interaction of four factors: utility, scarcity, the aspirations of individuals, and purchasing power. Historic buildings usually have some degree of utility, but often lack the maximum utility of modern structures. This lack, however, is typically offset by compensating attractions such as historic interest, prestige, and attractive architecture. As to scarcity, historic properties are by definition scarce, although this quality varies greatly by location. The aspirations of potential buyers or users may tend toward historic properties or away from them. Purchasing power, the ability to acquire real property with cash or its equivalent, varies with economic conditions, location, and income levels.

The Valuation Process

An appraiser develops an appraisal by collecting and analyzing data that are relevant to the market value of a specific property. The types of data that appraisers examine fall into three broad categories:

- sales of similar properties,
- incomes and expenses for similar properties, and
- the costs of developing similar properties.

These three classifications of data are the bases for the three traditional approaches to valuing real estate—sales comparison, income capitalization, and cost summation. Each approach will be discussed in detail later.

The appraiser's data collection and analysis should provide a reliable estimate of market value. Appraisers should consider all of those characteristics that influence buyers and sellers of historic properties. Market value for historic properties is unchanged in basic concept from that which governs other properties; however, historic properties have different variable characteristics from other types of properties.

The appraised property must relate to the physical and economic context in which it is situated. The value of any property is affected by the physical condition of surrounding properties, by the limitations of zoning or other government regulations, by government's ability or failure to provide needed services such as trash collection or protection from criminal activity, by the history of, and prognosis for, the general and local economy at the time of the appraisal, and by public preferences for types and uses of properties. The competent appraiser examines the neighborhood and community in which the historic property is located and relates the property's appeal to the market in view of all of the relevant physical, economic, social, and governmental influences.

Once an appraiser develops an appraisal, he or she writes the appraisal report. Developing and writing an appraisal report are two are separate acts. An appraisal can take weeks to carry out properly; typically the report will be drafted over a shorter time period. Completing a detailed appraisal report often involves producing such exhibits as photographs, floor plans, sketches, and data charts.

The *Uniform Standards of Professional Appraisal Practice*, which govern all licensed and designated appraisers, were altered in July 1994 to specifically delineate two types of appraisals and three types of written appraisal reports. (Oral reports are also permitted.) The two types of appraisals are called Complete Appraisals and Limited Appraisals. Complete appraisals are the norm, but an appraiser is permitted by the *Uniform Standards* to perform an assignment that is less than complete in one or more regards relative to what would otherwise be considered appropriate appraisal methodology or defined value.[9] For instance, although the sales comparison approach is usually the most indicative approach to the value of historic appraisals, an appraiser is permitted to value an income-producing property solely by the income approach provided the limitations of this type of value estimate are understood. Such an approach, for instance, might be specifically requested by a client who is interested only in the results of the income approach.

Three types of written reports, which differ significantly in detail, are specified by the *Uniform Standards*.

- *Self-Contained Appraisal Reports*, according to the *Uniform Standards of Professional Appraisal Practice*, must identify and describe the real estate being appraised; state the real property interest being appraised; state the purpose and intended use of the appraisal; define the value to be estimated; state the effective date of the appraisal, the period during which the appraisal was developed, and the date of the report; state the extent of the

process of collecting, confirming, and reporting data; state all assumptions and limiting conditions that affect the analyses, opinions, and conclusions; describe the information considered, the appraisal procedures followed, and the reasoning that supports the analyses, opinions, and conclusions; describe the appraiser's opinion of the highest and best use of the real estate, when such an opinion is necessary and appropriate; explain and support the exclusion of any of the usual valuation approaches; describe any additional information that may be appropriate; and include a signed certification.

- *A Summary Report*, on the other hand, summarizes descriptions, data, and processes. This type of appraisal report may become quite popular with clients and appraisers because it is shorter and less tedious to write and to read.

- *The Restricted Report*, reduces the reporting process to certain bare bones elements. Even the property description and the appraiser's reasoning can be left out of such reports. A Restricted Report may be used to report either a Complete Appraisal or a Limited Appraisal, however, the only permitted use of a Restricted Report is by the client—such a report has no validity for a third party and must be so labeled.[10] This type of report has little or no use beyond informing the client, i.e., no third party may base any action on a Restricted Report.

A good report should lead the reader through the laying down of the premise, through the descriptive passages, the setting of the context, and the development of the analysis, to a logical and conclusive value estimate. The appraiser should write the report from the perspective of the known conclusions of value so that irrelevancies and imbalance are precluded. The appraiser should write an appraisal report after the appraisal is concluded, so that the focus is on the data and analysis that produced the conclusion. Unfortunately, a more common way is to patch together pre-written and formulaic sections of a report into a great turgid document, long on background and short on meaningful analysis.

The relative length of the various sections can be a meaningful indicator in this regard. The longest section should report the way in which the value conclusion or conclusions were derived. Historic properties, of course, lend themselves to long property descriptions and long lists of regulatory conditions. A better way is to record the known details, assemble and process the data, work out the appraisal conclusions, then write a concise report that omits no important fact but omits all others.

Sales Comparison Approach

Generally historic properties are valued by sales comparison, a methodology that consists of selecting sale transactions involving similar properties with sale dates close to the date of appraisal, adjusting their sale prices to reflect differences in physical and economic characteristics, and analyzing the adjusted sale prices to derive the most reasonable conclusion of value for the property being appraised. Historic qualities add more complexity to the process.

The historic characteristics of a property are additional variables to the more common real estate variables such as location, physical condition, and size. Appraisers must consider a building's age, period, rarity, historic and/or cultural associations, architecture, authenticity, integrity, and typicality, all characteristics that, for the most part, are not commonly considered when appraising other types of property. Historic properties also present problematical disparities of deterioration and functional inutility. These inherent qualities contribute to the attractiveness of historic properties but they are also part of the problem. Appraisers must consider them carefully in the comparison process, which essentially consists of isolating and analyzing as many variables as the appraiser considers influential in the marketplace. At all times, appraisers should reflect the criteria of the marketplace in their interpretations of historic significance.

Selection of Comparables

A "comparable" in an appraiser's lexicon is a property similar to the appraised property that has been involved in a transaction resulting in a sale price, rent, expense, cost, or capitalization (income conversion) rate. Theoretically, if several sales of similar and nearby properties have taken place close to the date of valuation, collectively they will indicate the current market value for the appraised property.

Although this may be possible where many similar modern buildings have sold recently, it is less likely to be the situation relevant to a historic property. Some historic properties are atypical in their locations or are so historically significant that there is nothing as significant within their immediate location. Comparables for these properties will be difficult and time-consuming to assemble. Exceptions to this situation might include a property in an historic district where there are many similar properties, the work of an important architect where there are others that have sold, or landmark properties in cities such as Charleston or Savannah that are typified by landmarks. When there is a dearth of nearby comparables, appraisers sometimes react by introducing irrelevancy into the process. For example, an appraiser might add an arbitrary 10 percent to the results of analyzing sales of non-historic property as a way to reflect the historic qualities of a property. There is little science or reliability to such a solution. A 10 percent increment is valid, of course, if based on market evidence

Carrying out an appraisal is equivalent to solving a mystery. The appraiser must clearly understand the problem, assemble the facts, discard irrelevancies, and logically deduce the most probable solution. The mystery surrounding historic properties is deeper and more challenging than for more commonplace types of property. The search for historic comparables will have to cover more territory and perhaps a wider time period making it more difficult to analyze the comparables. The appraiser will have to make adjustments for differing locations and changing economic situations.

Sales transactions are available from the land records of cities and counties, from published computerized data reports, and from parties to the transactions. The market for historic properties is often broad geographically, and several national publications list historic properties that are available for sale. *Historic Preservation* magazine, published by the National Trust for Historic Preservation lists many such properties. Following up on sales of properties listed in back issues can be productive. These listings and sales also provide information about what features attract buyers most readily and what types of properties are available.

Real estate brokerage firms that specialize in historic properties such as participants in the National Trust's Historic Real Estate Program or one of the large nationally known marketing firms are additional potential sources of sales comparison data. Further, some local preservation organizations keep track of historic property sale prices or may be able to point the appraiser toward relevant transactions. Finally, sometimes owners are very willing to provide an appraiser with details of transactions regarding their own or similar historic properties.

The search for comparison data should focus first and always on the major criterion of similarity—location, sale date, size, style, and historic or cultural association. The work of a prominent architect should be compared with other buildings designed by that architect and, if necessary, similarly-regarded architects of the same period. Theaters should be compared to theaters, first in the neighborhood or community of the appraised theater, then, as necessary, in other locations. Large buildings should be compared to large buildings to the extent possible. Properties of great historic or cultural significance should be compared with properties of equal significance. Differing economic conditions produce significant variations over time; as a result, the sale date period should be as restricted as possible.

The criteria of similarity should be those criteria recognized by the marketplace, rather than those conceived by the appraiser. For example, buyers in a certain area may blur the distinctions among the various architectural styles of the 19th century, according them no particular increase or decrease in value. In such a case, it would be wrong for an appraiser to adjust sale prices for differences in 19th-century architectural styles. Furthermore, demand for particular types of historic properties varies from locale to locale. The market for investment in historic office buildings is probably confined to larger municipalities; there may be little or no demand for historic office buildings in small towns. Similarly, the market for residential mansions is limited to those buyers who can afford them. The buyers of buildings that can be adapted to bed-and-breakfast use will want to buy properties where tourism is prevalent and so on. This local specificity means that data searches must be extended only to where the demand for the subject type of historic property is similar.

When data is very scarce, the appraiser must sometimes compromise the criteria of similarity and use comparables that are less similar than the ideal. It is at this point that appraisers sometimes want to throw in the towel and succumb to analyzing non-similar properties in the locale of the appraised property and add an "increment" for the historic qualities of the property. It is better to widen the search to include historic comparables from other areas where there are similarities of demand. Diligence and effort are needed to acquire comparables for historic properties that are atypical of their environment. Adding comparables from other locations can be beneficial if their analysis is handled with care. An additional element of analysis will be necessary, one that discriminates between the two geographic areas as to sale prices in general and historic properties in particular. The degree of increment attributable to historic associations in the subject community, with care, can be inferred from the degree of increment observed in the other community.

Assembling the Data

Once the appraiser has ascertained and verified the details of comparable transactions, he or she assembles the data into a meaningful form. The details of transactions are more readily grasped from tabulated charts. Narrative description of the comparables should provide facts that cannot be presented on the charts.

To organize the data, the appraiser selects common denominators, called units of comparison, that apply to all of the comparables and the appraised property and that will allow the various properties to be compared. Land, for instance, is compared on a per-acre, per-lot, per-front-foot, or a per-square-foot basis; improved properties are compared on per-square-foot, per-apartment, per-room, or per restaurant- or theatre-seat basis. More than one unit of comparison may be appropriate. Improved properties with greater-than-typical amounts of land should be considered on a segregated basis, that is, with the typical site as the basis of comparison and the additional land valued separately but as contributory to the whole. Some portions of structures contribute to value at different rates; basements, attics, or other unfinished portions contribute at lower rates generally. For instance, above-ground finished portions of buildings may contribute to total property value at the rate of $100 per square foot, however, unfinished basements may add only $40 per square foot and finished basements only $70 per square foot.

Making the Adjustments

The sale prices of the comparables, once reduced to their units of comparison, must be adjusted to the subject property. The appraiser assigns all relevant differences a dollar or percentage adjustment. Sale prices are typically adjusted for differences in location, zoning, date of sale, physical condition, conditions of sale such as undue pressure to buy or sell, and financing terms that vary from those typical in the market.

In the case of historic properties, the appraiser makes adjustments for the degree of historic or architectural significance of the comparables relative to the appraised property. When properties designed by a prominent architect are compared to sale properties designed by the same architect, the appraiser must consider whether or not the comparables are examples of the architect's best work. When comparing the work of more than one architect, it is well to remember that just as the popularity of different styles of architecture changes over time, the popularity of specific architects also fluctuates as does the public's interest in various periods of history and in various historic personages. Interest in periods and individuals can also vary from locale to locale so that what attracts the local inhabitants may be different from what out-of-state potential purchasers prefer. Analysis of an appraised property and of the comparables that are used to estimate its market value should always be carried out in relation to the specific economic and physical environment of each property.

Another element of comparison that must be considered more frequently for historic properties is the presence of an encumbrance such as a preservation easement. These divided interests in historic property cannot be ignored. Preservation easements are interests in historic property held by a charitable organization in perpetuity. They provide for the easement holder to control the appearance, the use, and any subdivision of the property in such a way that the owner is limited as to changes that can be made to the property. In addition these easements may require a degree of maintenance that exceeds what is typical and therefore create abnormal costs for owners. Encumbered properties can be more difficult to market. Appraisers need to analyze the extra costs, lost flexibility, and marketing difficulties associated with owning a property so encumbered.

Just as appraisers are often baffled by the problem of how to obtain the right comparables for a historic property, they can similarly be challenged by the

The Sales Comparison Approach

This chart illustrates the adjustment process in which the date of appraisal is assumed to be September of the year x (any given year). The appraiser concludes from a larger body of sales data that during the period of time covered by the comparable transactions, the trend in the market has been slightly upward. These four comparables are very similar in physical condition. The market in this locale prefers the Federal style of architecture to the Queen Anne. Larger buildings sell at slightly lower rates per square foot of building, all other things being equal. There are no instances of duress or atypical financing among the four comparables. The lots are all of a similar size and the most relevant unit of comparison is dollars per square foot of building area.

Comp.	Price	Date	Size	Location	Style	$/SF
A	$435,000	Feb.	5,000 SF	25 Henry	Queen Anne	$87.00
B	$470,000	Mar.	5,200 SF	31 Beau.	Federal	$90.38
C	$505,000	June	5,500 SF	2 Jackson	Federal	$91.82
D	$400,000	Aug.	4,500 SF	11 Folly	Federal	$88.89
Subject			4,800 SF	30 Henry	Queen Anne	

Adjustments

	$/SF	Date	Size	Location	Style	Tot.	Indic.
Comp A	$87.00	+5%	0%	0%	0%	+5%	$91.35
Comp B	$90.38	+5%	0%	0%	-4%	+1%	$91.28
Comp C	$91.82	+2%	+ 5%	-5%	-4%	-2%	$89.98
Comp D	$88.89	+1%	- 2%	+8%	-4%	+3%	$91.56

In this example because there is very little difference between the locations of Comparables A and B and because the sizes, locations, and dates of sale are so similar, the $35,000 difference in the sale prices of the two is evidently attributable to the preference of the local market for Federal architecture as compared with Queen Anne. This difference becomes the basis for the adjustment for style made to Comparables B, C, and D.

Analysis of these comparables indicates a range of per-square-foot-of-building-area values of between $89.98 and $91.56 or a round number range between $431,000 and $439,500. Because three of the comparables indicate a more narrow range, between $438,100 and $439,500, the appraiser can most reasonably conclude a market value of $438,000 for the appraised property, which is at a rate of $91.25 per square foot for the 4,800 square feet of the appraised building.

appropriate magnitude to which adjustments should be made. Appraisers analyze to the extent possible the differences in sale prices attributable to variables among the selected comparables. These differences will indicate the adjustments that need to be made to the comparable prices to indicate the value of the appraised property.

Variables—location, physical condition, and size—will produce sale prices that vary accordingly. The variable being examined is isolated by eliminating the effects of other variables. The easiest way to do this is to select two comparables that are different only in terms of the variable in question. For example, if two comparables are similarly located, are of the same size, use, and zoning, are in the same approximate physical condition, and sold within a time period during which economic conditions did not change, the difference in price can be reasonably attributed to the one remaining variable—their design or style. Comparison of the two prices will produce a dollar or percentage adjustment that can be applied to style differences between the comparables and the appraised property.

More than one comparison may be necessary in order to quantify the effect of variables, and almost always the appraiser will have to use judgment in interpreting the market. Isolating a single variable may require adjusting for other differences first, e.g., adjusting for a size difference to isolate the effect of a difference in location. In order to do this, of course, the effect of the size difference has to be evident to the appraiser from other data.

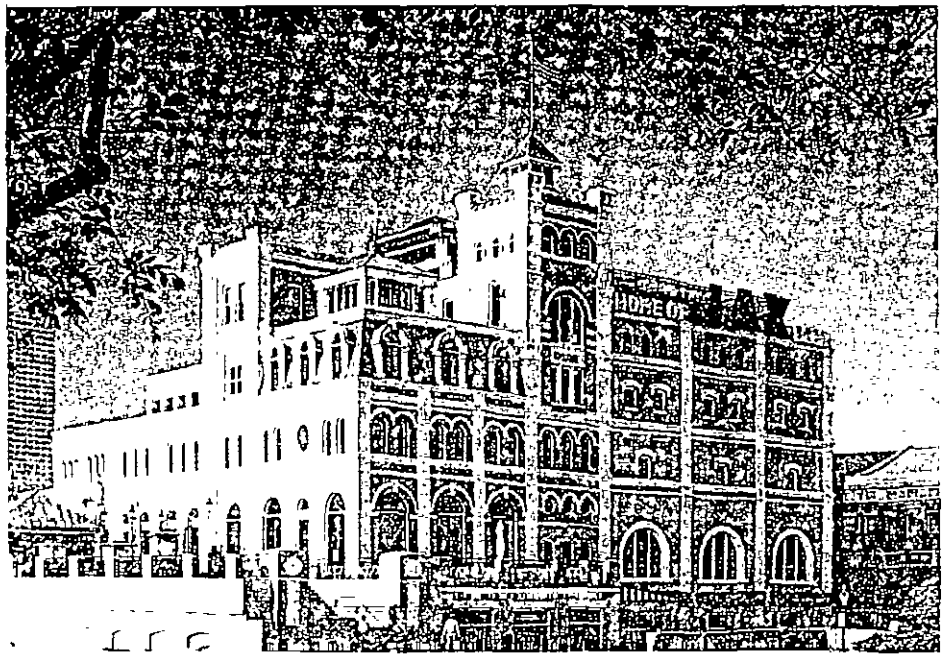
Concluding a Value from Sales Comparison

Once the appraiser has made adjustments to all comparable sale prices, they should be arrayed in tabular form and rechecked for internal consistency. The adjustment process should be mathematically consistent, but it also should be logically consistent in the judgment of the appraiser. The conclusion of market value that results from sales comparison analysis should be one that is the most likely in the appraiser's judgment, based on the characteristics of the appraised property, the economic and physical situation of the appraised property, and the weight of the evidence of the comparable properties considered.

The Income Approach

The income approach to market value is based on the relationship between future income benefits of ownership and current sale prices in the open market. Income-producing properties are usually purchased as investments, that is, they are purchased either for their income-generating potential or because their market value is expected to increase over time or both. Excluded from this category are those houses that are used for single-family occupancy. Not only do they not typically generate any income, if they are rented, their rent seldom can be related in any meaningful pattern to the sale prices they bring.

Investment real estate generally has produced highly satisfactory returns over the recent history of the United States, although during periods of severe recession it can present a strong element of risk. The risk of ownership must be assessed as part of the income approach to market value. Historic properties, once a very risky type of investment, have steadily become much less so, through a combination of supportive government programs including tax benefits and increased public awareness and appreciation. The combination



Many historic properties have potential uses other than those for which they were originally designed. The Jax Brewery in New Orleans, La., was converted into a marketplace with specialty shops and restaurants.

of the two has been synergistic, producing a permanent niche for historic properties in today's real estate market.

Investors view income properties from both the standpoint of their current and anticipated production of net income and their anticipated potential sale prices. Income is related to value in the income approach through financial rate relationships that convert income to market value. Such income rates are known as *yield rates*—rates that reflect the anticipated increase or decrease in the value of the property as well as competitive annual returns on invested capital.

Current yield rates, known as capitalization rates, represent the relationship of a property's price or value to its actual or estimated net income. The rate is expressed as a percentage and is determined by dividing the income by the price or value. The capitalization or current yield rate is an income rate analogous to that with which common stock yields are quoted.

Another real estate yield rate, called *yield-to-maturity rate*, represents the relationship of a property's price or value to its income plus or minus an annualized allowance for the anticipated increase or decrease in its future price or value. The to-maturity rate combines income and capital change (and the time value of money) and is analogous to bond yields. Whereas a bond will mature at a known price, the future price/value of a real estate investment is unknown, although usually its buyer believes the liquidation price will be higher than the initial investment because, like stock, real estate is thought to be an inflation hedge.

The difference in the underlying concepts between the two types of real estate yields generally results in capitalization or income-only rates being lower than to-maturity rates to the extent of the anticipated increase in the value of the property. The increase may result from inflation, from improvements in the property's location, or an increase in the popularity of the building's style. (On the other hand, the building will be in the process of deteriorating, the location may worsen, and the style may fall from favor, and these factors may at least partially offset increases in value or price.)

Real estate equities require higher to-maturity yield rates than do mortgages, for instance, because of the greater risk and reduced liquidity attendant on equities. At the same time the equity capitalization rate is lower than that of the mortgage because the equity is expected to increase in capital worth through the reduction of the mortgage debt and through inflation.

Estimating Property Income

Some historic properties produce incomes that are fully competitive with their non-historic counterparts; other historic properties produce only minimal incomes such as that from a low volume of tourism. Even those properties that have only a modest income potential can be valued effectively by income analysis along with other approaches. Modest-income properties with the potential for value appreciation will demonstrate very low-income yield rates because their potential for value enhancement stems mostly from characteristics other than income production.

The highest and best (most economic) use of an appraised property may involve changes in the building's physical condition—restoration, rehabilitation, adaptive use, or some combination of the three. If this is the case, the income estimated for the property will be premised on the optimum program of physical change. As a result of the widespread public interest in, and appreciation of, historic properties, many older buildings have come to be viewed as having potential uses other than those for which they were designed. Adaptive use is a term that describes creative uses of historic buildings. An example is Union Station in Washington, D.C., once a large railway station, now a smaller rail facility combined with a collection of retail stores, restaurants, and movie theaters. Railway stations in other cities have been similarly adapted. Modifications are often required to make new uses viable; if the integrity of the property is to be maintained, these modifications must be designed and executed with care and concern for the historic and architectural qualities of the property.

Buildings with historic or architectural merit are rehabilitated for one of three reasons: 1) a private charitable organization or public entity is willing to carry out the preservation effort because it is consistent with the organization's mission or public purpose; 2) preserving the property has become an emotional issue, either with the owner or the public; or 3) preserving the property is consistent with its highest and best, or most economic, use. Publicly-subsidized and emotionally-directed efforts are now generally confined to properties that have become inconsistent with their surroundings. Most preservation today is directed toward reviving older buildings for financial as well as aesthetic satisfaction.

Restoration, rehabilitation, or adaptive use changes may be proposed by the client who has requested the appraisal. If so the appraiser must examine carefully the plans and descriptions of the contemplated work and incorporate it accurately into the appraisal. On the other hand, the appraiser may judge changes to be the highest and best use of the property whether or not the owner or client has proposed such changes. Estimating the cost of such changes may be necessary in order to value the property in its as-is condition.

All proposed or assumed adaptation and rehabilitation work must meet zoning and building code requirements as well as any additional requirements of the jurisdiction in which the property is located. If the property is to benefit from historic rehabilitation tax credits, the property and the rehabilitation work must meet the qualifying federal standards. The appraiser should obtain from the owner or the National Park Service copies of the certification of the property as contributory to the historic district in which it is located or its individual listing in the National Register and also the preliminary or as-

completed written approval from the Park Service of the planned or completed rehabilitation work.

Any other assumptions on which appraisals are premised must always be legally permitted, financially feasible, and physically possible. Appraisals are frequently based on assumed conditions, providing these conditions are reasonable. The as-is condition, with no changes, can also be the basis of the appraisal. In either case, the premise must be stated clearly in the appraisal report.

Historic properties that can be used for commercial purposes have an income-generating advantage over residential properties. Commercial properties are those that are located where the zoning permits retailing, hotels, restaurants, theaters, and offices and where there is a demand for such uses. Historic properties are often especially attractive to tourists and to the tourist-related businesses that cater to them, but many office tenants and local inhabitants are also attracted by the charm and grace of historic structures.

Where historic buildings are grouped in a commercial zone, their appeal can be even greater. As properties typical of an area, they create a scenic streetscape, a destination to visit, or a pleasant workplace. Historic districts in towns and cities are often located in the downtown and can be the most attractive, lively, and income-generating sections of an urban center. Almost any kind of structure can be converted to commercial use; warehouses can be made into hotels; mansions can become restaurants; an industrial building can be converted to offices and stores; and many different kinds of buildings can be converted to apartments.

Historic residential properties may have adaptive uses that provide income, such as bed-and-breakfast hotels, inns, private clubs, museums, or galleries where these uses are permitted by the zoning. Often historic residential properties can be converted to these types of uses or even to more typical commercial uses with a degree of indulgence from local zoning and building code officials. Exceptions may be made to rigorous requirements for door-opening widths, enclosing stairwells and such, the enforcement of which would destroy historic features that should be preserved.

Historic properties that produce a competitive income stream are valued much like their non-historic counterpart properties. Appraisers analyze rent and expense comparables for the locale to determine the market's level of rent and expenses for the appraised property. Ascertaining an accurate measurement of the rentable space for an older building, however, may require the services of an architect. The appraised property and the comparables in any case must be compared on an equivalent measurement basis. Rentable area is defined in various ways in different parts of the country, but generally it consists of gross area less the area of exterior walls, vertical shafts through the building, and space unusable for any purpose. Multi-tenant rentable area generally consists of space occupied by the tenant plus an apportionment of public space in rest rooms, hallways, and such. Small buildings are often rented to single tenants on a simple inside gross measurement.

Functional utility or its lack can directly influence rental income. Historic properties, whether they were designed for commercial or residential use, may be limited in their income-earning potential relative to more modern properties by interior configurations that are awkward for commercial uses. On the other hand, the charm and interest of historic buildings can offset inferior functional utility. To some extent historic buildings can undergo interior modifications that do not compromise the integrity of their design while at the same time providing more rentable space with a better appeal to potential tenants. Other modifications that enhance rentability include energy conservation measures such as new mechanical systems, insulation, and insulated window glass, providing the latter meets the Secretary of the Interior's *Standards for Rehabilitation.*

An appraiser can derive market or economic income for properties that have a highest and best use related to tourism from other area tourist attractions. The number of people who visit historic attractions on a daily, monthly, and yearly basis and the entrance fees collected can demonstrate what a similar property is likely to produce in tour-related income. This type of income is not equal to rent; the profit an entrepreneur would require should be deducted to reach rental income. In other words, a potential tenant would not pay as much rent as he or she would expect to earn in income, otherwise there would be no incentive to rent the property.

The same types of properties that are opened to the public as privately-owned museums are frequently converted to inns or bed-and-breakfast hotels. Usually these large dwellings are characteristic of a particular period or architectural style or perhaps are associated with a historic event or person. The rental comparables for these will likely be scattered over a wider geographic area than the immediate neighborhood of the appraised property, although sometimes a number of such small hotels are located within popular vacation areas.

Estimating Expenses

Appraisers stabilize expenses, that is, they project the expenses that reflect past trends as well as expected future trends and any changes that are anticipated in the building's physical condition, always assuming competent management. The operation of historic properties for income-producing purposes often results in expenses that vary widely from those of modern utilitarian buildings. The costs of maintaining intricate and delicate ornamentation and deteriorating building components are almost always higher. Utility and cleaning costs for high-ceilinged, non-insulated, intricately-configured spaces can also

purposes.

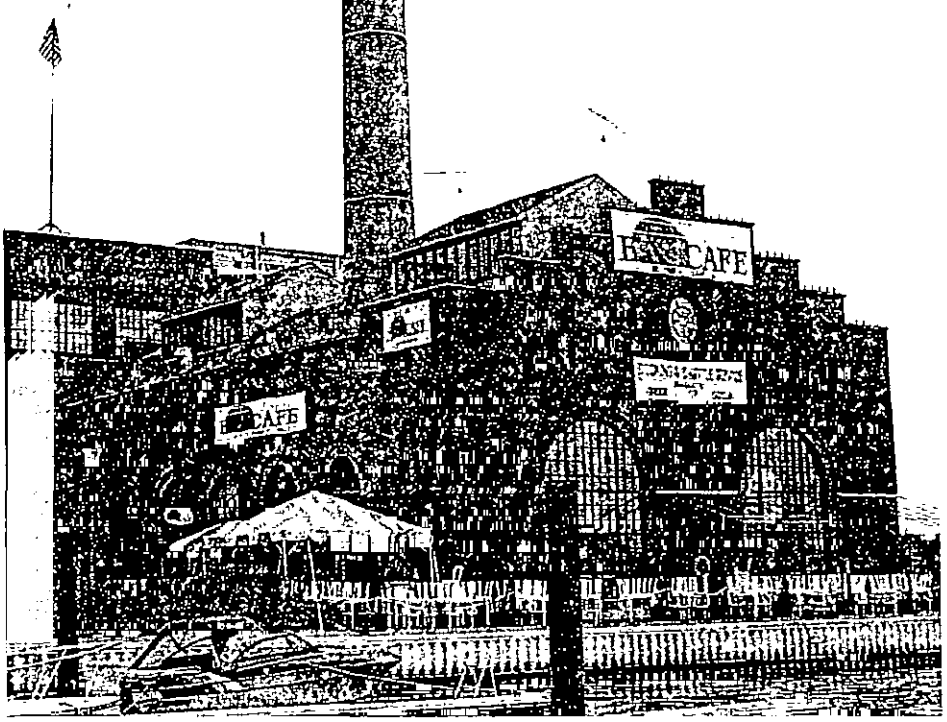


photo: Byrd Wood

exceed those for modern buildings. Insurance premiums may be higher. Usually the comparables for projecting expenses will be other similar historic properties rather than non-historic properties. If the appraised property has an operating expense history, it also will be indicative of future expenses unless significant physical or operating changes are imminent.

Some expenses are paid by landlords whereas others are paid by tenants. In the absence of a lease or leases for the appraised building, a typical basis for tenant-borne expenses can be established from the comparable rental situations. Some leases provide for increases in certain expenses to be wholly or partially borne by tenants; this type of clause helps to protect the property owner from increases in expenses that diminish net income. Leases also frequently provide for escalation of rents on an annual or other periodic basis. This type of inflation protection allows the financial rates used to convert income to value to be lower.

Processing Net Income

The appraiser deducts the estimated annual expenses from the estimated annual income to produce an estimate of the property's net income, which can be converted to market value through a single current yield rate that reflects the appropriate relationship between income and value in the appraised property's direct market. If the net annual income estimated for the property is $120,000 and the selected capitalization (current yield) rate is 8 percent, the market value is $1,500,000 ($120,000/.08 = $1,500,000).

Alternatively, the appraiser can project income and expenses over a period of years into the future and discount, using a to-maturity yield rate, the resulting net incomes individually and collectively back to a present value estimate. This latter method better reflects complicated lease situations, in which annual net incomes may vary widely due to provisions in the leases for escalation of rents and for transfers of certain expenses or increases in expenses from landlord to tenants. Calculation of multiple years of annual incomes based on complex lease provisions and the summing of the present values of the income stream is usually accomplished through the use of a computer spreadsheet program.

Yield rates appropriate for historic properties should be chosen in consideration of the possible subsidized mortgage interest rate, the available income tax reductions, or other ongoing annual benefits, in addition to the typical income property considerations related to inflation and risk. Important or monumental historic buildings cannot be regarded as wasting assets. They are likely to be maintained indefinitely and therefore rates that reflect a wearing-out process are inappropriate. In fact, the reverse may be true: as the historic building ages it may become more valuable.

Investments in income-producing historic properties via partnerships or joint ventures proliferated after the Revenue Act of 1978 and the

The cost approach can be used to recognize the craftsmanship and quality of materials inherent in historic properties.

Economic Recovery Tax Act of 1981, both of which were very favorable to preservation projects. Because of the tax benefits, investors were motivated to invest in properties that would not otherwise have been economically viable. The desired objectives were achieved—the historic districts of many cities underwent a renaissance; tourism was greatly enhanced in these areas; and new buildings began to be built with more quality and better architecture because of the competition of attractive historic and architecturally significant properties. Tax benefits for historic properties were diminished greatly by the 1986 Tax Reform Act and, as a result, rehabilitation activity slowed substantially. Although benefits still are available to historic properties, they are much more modest.

Adjustments for special grants, subsidized financing, investment tax credits, and such one-time special benefits available to historic properties can be made in the final reconciliation once all of the approaches to value are completed. However, any benefits that affect net income for more than one or two years, such as deferment of ad valorem taxes, should be factored directly into the income approach. Investments rendered less risky by historic property benefits or subsidies may deserve lower yield rates.

The Cost Approach

We have said that the traditional cost approach is often the least indicative approach to the value of historic properties. First, a new replica of the appraised building would not have its history. Secondly, the construction methods, workmanship, and materials of historic buildings sometimes cannot be replicated. Thirdly, time distorts the relationship between development cost and market value as building technology changes, as physical condition becomes "not-new," and as the perception of what constitutes useful human living and working space evolves.

The cost approach is built on the premise that the cost to reproduce any commodity is a controlling element of value. Buyers will compare the prices for existing buildings to the cost to produce similar buildings and will tend to choose the more attractive proposition. Also there is a tendency not to build when an adequate supply of buildings providing the same usefulness already exists and then a tendency to produce new buildings in reaction to an inadequate supply. This proclivity to balance the supply of existing buildings with new construction is related to the profit that can be obtained from new construction, but also to the ongoing provision of maximum utility to the market.

The cost approach applies to historic properties, from a different perspective, in that it can be used to recognize the craftsmanship and quality of materials inherent in historic properties and to relate these qualities to the higher income and sale prices that often accrue to them. It is often less expensive to rehabilitate a historic building than to construct a similar new building. Additionally, variations on the cost approach are necessary for estimating insurable value and for demonstrating the contribution of rehabilitation to market value.

The cost approach consists of three components: 1) an estimate of current cost, 2) an estimate of the accrued depreciation in the structure or structures, and 3) the value of the land.

The problematical elements of applying the cost approach to historic properties affect each of these components. As regards current cost, replication cost for very old structures can be next to impossible to estimate, while at the same time the replacement cost concept is inappropriate. Furthermore, the qualities of historic and cultural associations cannot be reproduced.

As regards depreciation, the normal deductions for functional inutility and physical deterioration by their very nature are less appropriate for historic

properties than for those properties that are judged by the modern standards for functional utility and new condition.

As to the land value component, the sites of historic buildings that may not be demolished cannot be valued as though available for development with their highest and best uses inasmuch as the existing use is the only legal use. Battlefields and archeological sites, if no development is legally permitted, must be valued on the basis of whatever use is permitted them. This can be problematical in the extreme, but sales of land purchased as buffer zones and sales of land encumbered with easements prohibiting development can be used for comparison purposes.

Estimating Cost New

Despite certain limitations, estimating the cost of replicating a physically-identical structure rather than the cost of providing equal functional utility in a modern structure more accurately reflects the market value of a historic property. Replacement cost, the cost to construct a building of equivalent utility using modern materials and design elements, omits the very elements that are valuable in historic properties. Reproduction cost will more accurately reflect the thick walls, high ceilings, larger windows, and ornamentation of older buildings. What should not be reproduced in the cost estimate are any inharmonious elements that restoring the integrity of the building requires removing such as incompatible modern additions or interior partitioning.

In order to estimate cost, the appraiser must have accurate measurements and a floor plan. Whereas modern buildings are built to maximize the ratio of usable area to gross area, this is often not the case for older buildings that have different structural elements and heavier materials. The gross area of a building is calculated on the basis of the outside measurements with adjustments for sloping ceilings such as those in attics.

The standard published per-square-foot construction costs for various types of modern buildings that are available to appraisers are of little use in valuing an historic structure. Instead cost estimates should be based on the actual building components and should be made by someone knowledgeable as to the costs of quality materials and crafting. Sometimes original materials are no longer available and some craftsmanship can no longer be achieved. When this is the case, the cost of the nearest approximations should be estimated. (Some appraisers do have this ability, but often the task calls for the services of an architect or professional cost estimator).

The construction costs of such site improvements as paving, drainage systems, and landscaping as well as non-construction costs such as those for design and engineering, interest and taxes during construction, legal costs such as permits and fees, and also an appropriate entrepreneurial incentive or profit must be added to the basic replica cost of the building or buildings in order to complete the development cost estimate.

Historic properties need to be insured, but insurance carriers frequently want insurable value to be based on replacement cost, which might not adequately recognize the exceptional qualities of historically or architecturally significant buildings. Replica cost using similar materials is the appropriate basis for valuing historic properties. Insurable value is generally limited to the cost new of the above-ground (combustible) portion of the building.

Estimating Depreciation

The second major element of the cost approach is depreciation or deviation from the ideal. Three forms of depreciation are deducted from the estimate of replication cost:

- deviation from a brand-new condition (physical deterioration)
- deviation from ideal design (functional obsolescence), and
- detriment resulting from influences exterior to the property (economic obsolescence).

Replica cost rather than replacement cost is the appropriate basis for valuing historic properties.

Sidebar of Terms

Ad valorem - according to value, usually refers to values estimated for the purposes of real estate taxes.

Market value - the value of a specific property on a specific date, resulting from the interplay of all relevant market forces.

Assessed value - the value placed on properties by a governmental taxing entity.

Insurable value - defined variously by insurance carriers, but usually the replacement cost of the combustible portions of a structure less depreciation.

Investment value - value to a particular investor.

Highest and best use - the most economic use that is also legal, physically possible, and likely. The use that results in the highest value.

Reproduction cost new - an estimate of the cost to replicate an existing building as of a current or other specified date.

Depreciation - any loss in property value; the total difference between cost-new and market value.

Comparables - transactions of various types that provide data for appraisal comparison purposes.

Functional utility - the qualities of usefulness and efficiency in a building.

Capitalization - the conversion of income into value.

Although historic and older architecturally-significant buildings are by definition not-new, physical deterioration is not the same thing as age and is deleterious for any structure. Physical deterioration can mean the structural integrity is threatened, the component parts are crumbling, and finishes are diminishing. Physical deterioration is unattractive to buyers and causes a diminution in market value. Historic buildings require preservation; their structural soundness, materials, craftsmanship, and finishes require renewal and maintenance.

Some types of physical deterioration do not justify penalties. Historic buildings may have settled on their sites, causing a shifting and sloping that does not threaten their structural integrity or their marketability. Also sometimes a less than new appearance and the patina of age add to value.

The cost to bring the building into a restored condition rather than the age of the building is the appropriate measure of physical deterioration. If the cost of a complete and thorough rehabilitation exceeds the value of the building as rehabilitated, something more modest in the way of rehabilitation is indicated to be the highest and best use. The normal market economics may not apply if a nonprofit organization is involved in taking care of the property. In such cases the rehabilitation cost may well exceed the market value of the property as rehabilitated.

Functional inutility or obsolescence is defined as impairment of functional capacity or efficiency. The appraiser, however, must judge this penalty within the context of the market standard of potential buyers for a particular category of building. Functional obsolescence can be measured in historic buildings, not as it relates to the design elements that are the essence of the building, nor to the lack of modern building materials, but rather as it relates to limitations on usability. These limitations might be the lack of air conditioning and energy-saving features or a floor plan that makes the building infeasible for what would otherwise be its highest and best use.

The concept of usefulness or functional utility that is so integral to highest and best use is also central to the cost approach, which recognizes that a useless building contributes nothing to value, regardless of its cost new. Lack of safety from fire hazards, security, convenience, light and air, and reasonable maintenance expenditure result in functional obsolescence deductions from cost new. Their measure is the cost to cure their lack, which is to say, the cost of installing the required features must be deducted from the appraiser's replication cost estimate for improvements to the existing condition.

Economic or external obsolescence results from influences outside the property itself. The location of a historic property among similar properties is generally beneficial. Isolation of an historic property can either be neutral as when the surrounding properties are different but generally harmonious, or harmful as when the surrounding properties have a negative value impact on the historic property. Inharmonious neighboring properties might be warehouses surrounding a historic school or a malodorous paper mill near a district of fine old houses. The property owner generally cannot eliminate these influences. Measures of external obsolescence include percentage or dollar penalties extracted from sales of properties. Alternatively the penalties can be estimated by conversion of the net income lost due to the adverse influence to a capital amount.

Estimating Land Value

Land is the basis of all real estate and all real estate value. Land, according to the tenets of traditional appraisal theory, is valued as though vacant and available for development with its most economic use. This theory has had to bow to historic properties that are regarded as cultural assets to be preserved.

In many cases the existing development may be the only possible development and therefore the land will have to be appraised as it is developed. Often this means appraising the land as if it were zoned to permit a much

The location of historic properties among similar properties is generally beneficial.

lower density of development and limited to uses that can legally be made of the existing structures.

Some historic buildings can be expanded in size and some can be incorporated into larger structures even though the historic structure must be preserved with its existing features. Further development of the site may involve costs that would not apply if the site were vacant. These costs are appropriate deductions from the estimate of market value.

Similarly in some historic districts, facades have been removed and then replaced as part of new construction. The extra cost of this rather questionable type of preservation should be deducted from the estimated market value of the land as available for its highest and best use. In each case, appraisers must ascertain the probability associated with retention or demolition of the structure and carry out their site valuation accordingly.

In some jurisdictions of the United States, preservation is encouraged through the right to move or sell development rights, often called air rights. This simply means that the right to construct a certain volume of new building, over and above that occupied by the existing historic building, can be exercised on another site, either an abutting site or a site in a different location. Sometimes the owners have the right to sell the development rights.

In some rural jurisdictions, transferrable development rights are regularly sold by owners of land in rural conservation districts to owners of land eligible for development. In cities the purpose of transferrable development programs is usually to aid historic preservation. If the right to sell or develop density not utilized by historic buildings is available to the owner of the site, the property is valued as including this benefit.

Ideally, a building should suit its site. In evaluating the site's appropriateness, the appraiser should consider size, configuration, topography, relationship to adjacent properties and rights-of-way, as well as orientation to the sun, any views, prevailing breezes, and such. Also in evaluating the site of a historic building, appraisers must ascertain whether the zoning ordinance provides that historic structures can be put to profitable uses denied to non-historic structures. Appraisers should also consider whether a historic building that is moved to a new location gains or loses value due to a loss of integrity from the move.

Concluding a Cost Approach Value

When the three elements of the cost approach, cost-new, depreciation, and land value, are added together, still missing are the historic associations that add to the value of many historic properties. The historic events that have transpired in connection with an appraised property are not reflected in the replication cost of the improvements or in the site value, unless the latter has been estimated through comparison with sales of other historic sites. The element of historic association is best estimated by deducting reproduction cost less depreciation and land value from sales of other historic properties. Any remaining value can be attributed to the historic character of the sold properties. Another way is to convert the extra net income available to historic properties through the use of an appropriate financial rate into a value increment ascribable to the historic character of the property.

The increment for historic associations is added to the summation of land value and building cost less depreciation. In putting the cost approach together, the appraiser should be careful to value the property on a consistent basis, not on one use for land and a different use for improvements.

Reconciliation of Valuation Approaches

Most appraisals will be made using more than one approach to value. The three approaches just described are not wholly unrelated. Instead, the three approaches to value should be viewed as interrelated throughout the course of the appraisal. Comparable data are used to derive return and yield rates and to estimate land value in the cost approach as well as the value increment attributable to historic and cultural qualities. Income is used as a basis for some of the measures of depreciation. Cost figures are used to make adjustments to sales that require rehabilitation.

In drawing together the various analyses in order to conclude a single estimate of market value an appraiser will first recapitulate the entire process. Reconciliation requires the appraiser to interpret the appraisal process; it is not a mathematical calculation. The consistency of the process should be retraced to ascertain whether the appraisal premise has been applied the same way throughout and whether all of the approaches are consistent with the appraiser's conclusion of highest and best use. The conclusions are balanced on the basis of their strengths and weaknesses and the stronger indications are given more emphasis. The final conclusion of value should be consistent with the most probable selling price, given an adequate marketing period and no undue pressure to sell. In summary, the appraiser appraises his or her work to ascertain the value that it most strongly indicates. The appraiser should be able to defend the value conclusion against attack with reason and logic. All in all the appraisal process is an exercise in applying the correct appraisal standards and methodology with objective detachment.

Conclusion

Placing a value on history is not always easy. Appraisers have struggled with the lack of precedent and the lack of market examples as Americans have grown increasingly interested in historic preservation. When it was nearly too late, the preservation movement emerged to counteract the deterioration of center cities and neighborhoods and to coax architecture back to a more civilized expression. Today historic preservation is accepted as a part of our culture that is here to stay. Appraisal theory, which did not emerge as a formal discipline until the disasters of the Great Depression of the 1930s, developed with modernism as its standard. Appraisal theorists have lagged behind the preservation movement, perhaps suspecting that it is a temporary phenomenon.

The appropriate methodologies for appraising historic properties and preservation easements are still being argued. Fortunately, appraisal theory is based on the economic theories of the free market and as a result there are always guideposts for appraisers in the actions of the market. The preservation movement was greatly aided by changes in laws concerning demolition and changes that can be made to historic properties. Although many battles have been fought in the courts over development rights in opposition to preservation, preservation law has generally prevailed and the real estate market has responded with innovative and economic uses of historic properties. Even though changes in laws have been necessary to coerce the preservation movement into the mainstream of real estate development, in the long run, the favor with which the public now regards historic preservation has been a greater influence. These changes in laws and in public preferences are now recognized by all but the most insular appraisers.

Obtaining an appraisal of a historic property still remains a challenge, and the appropriate methodology will continue to be argued in scholarly writings and in judicial proceedings for some time yet. There is every indication, however, that the viewpoints of preservationists and appraisers are merging as the actions of the marketplace validate the expectations of those who seek to preserve history in its most tangible form. More education and discourse toward this end is needed and undoubtedly will be welcomed by all concerned.

APPENDIX

Appraising Easements

Owners of historic properties can donate development rights and rights they have to change their properties to charitable organizations that will then control these rights and in doing so protect the properties from harmful changes. These rights are donated as easements, commonly termed historic preservation easements. A similar type of easement can be donated on scenic land. This type of easement is usually called either a conservation easement or an open space easement.

Sometimes government entities buy or condemn such rights, particularly in the form of open space or conservation easements, to protect scenic features such as river fronts, hiking trails, or other important landscape features. If the government buys an easement, the property owner receives the purchase price as compensation. If the government takes the easement rights through the condemnation process, the government is required to pay the market value of the easement rights to the property owner. If the easement is donated to a qualified organization or the government entity, the donor many be entitled to a deduction from taxable income equal to all or part of the value of the surrendered rights.

Tax law specifies which properties are eligible for these tax deductions. Generally speaking, the properties must be historically, culturally, or environmentally significant and must be able to be enjoyed in some way by the public even if they can be only viewed from a public right of way.

The appraisal methodology is the same whether the easement is donated, condemned, or purchased. Appraisers must choose, however, between 1) appraising easements on the basis of direct comparisons with easements that have been purchased when such data are available, or 2) appraising the whole property before and then after the easement donation, taking, or purchase. In the latter case, the difference between the pre-easement and the post-easement valuations is the value of the easement rights.

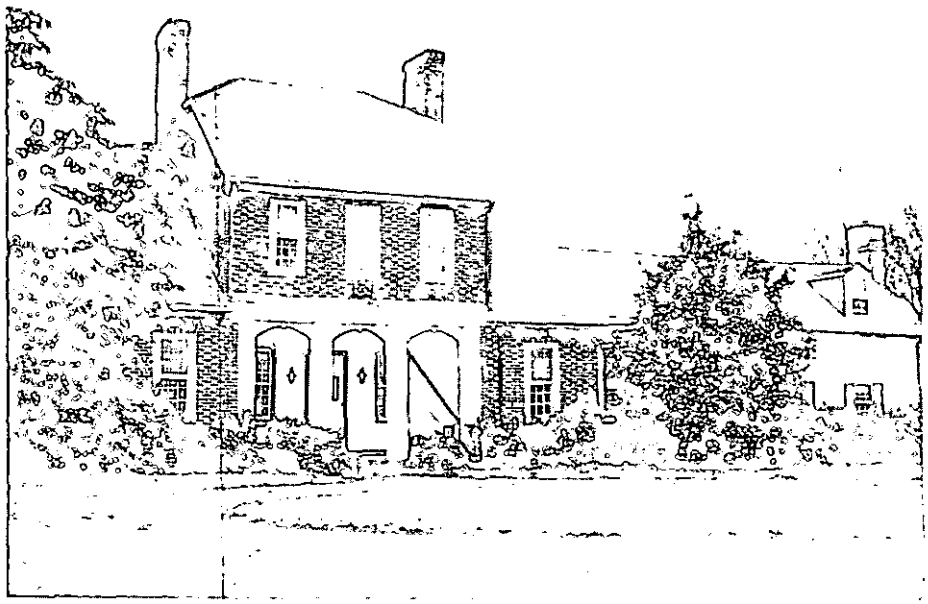
The pre-easement property is valued whole, using any methodology that would be appropriate if no division of interest were contemplated. If the sales comparison, income, and cost approaches are all indicative, they should all be used and the results reconciled to the most reasonable value conclusion. The principle of highest and best use is significant, particularly because highest and best use is frequently surrendered when an easement is donated or acquired. However, the highest and best use must reasonable, legal, and likely. That is, there must be a market demand for the use posited.

The post-easement property consists of property rights remaining after the easement has severed ownership into two groups of rights. The property owner will likely retain the right to use the property in ways that are compatible with the design of the building or buildings and to make small changes that do not compromise the integrity and general appearance of the property.

Easements can be as varied as the number donated. In most cases the property owner relinquishes right to demolish buildings, change facades, subdivide the land, build incompatible new structures, and destroy woodlands and other scenic features. Easements on farmland generally prohibit harmful agricultural practices and changes to the topography of the land as well as prohibiting all, or all but limited, subdivision.

Appraising the post-easement property requires the appraiser to gather data concerning properties that are similarly encumbered with easements or that are restricted by zoning or economic conditions to a similar restricted development density or limited use. Using sales of easements, where this type of market data is available, obviates the need to appraise the pre-easement and post-easement property and permits direct comparison with other easement transactions. In this type of approach, however, the appraiser must judge carefully the similarity of the purchased easements with the easement that is to be surrendered or taken on the appraised property.

Appraising easements is a subject that cannot be conveyed in all of its complexity here, but an example will demonstrate the general process. Suppose the property to be appraised is a single-family residence located within a historic district in a large city. The site is three times the size required by the zoning to serve as a dwelling lot. The demand for lots in the neighborhood is amply demonstrated by sales of lots that have been subdivided from some of the larger properties. The house, which is situated to one side of the site, dates from the early 18th century and has been certified by the National Park Service as contributory to the historic district. A charitable organization has accepted an easement prohibiting subdivision of the land and all substantive changes to the exterior appearance of the property. Uses other than single-family residential use are prohibited.



An easement on Bachelor's Hope in southern Maryland protects the property from inappropriate changes.

The appraisal process in the pre-easement case (no sales of easements in this district are available) involves valuing the property by sales comparison, using sales of similarly-sized residential properties with large, subdividable lots. Sales of subdivided lots are also analyzed toward estimating the contribution of the extra land to the value of the whole property. The appraiser observes that some buyers of nearby properties with large sites are willing to sell their extra land, and that others intend only to utilize their extra land to provide gardens and privacy. However, the potential for subdivision and the demand for house lots in the neighborhood establishes subdivision of large sites as the most profitable use of the appraised property.

The contribution of the extra land to the value of the property is less than the retail prices available for the two extra lots that could be created because deductions must be made for the costs and risk of subdivision. The appraiser concludes from comparison of sales of similar properties that the house and one-third of its site have a market value of $500,000 and that each of the two subdividable lots could be sold for $200,000. With the two potential additional lots the total property value is $800,000, with the extra land contributing $300,000 or approximately 75 percent of what it would bring as two separate lots.

The appraiser then estimates the value of the property in the post-easement case. Other preservation easements have been donated in the neighborhood and when these properties were later sold, a price diminution reflected the lost potential for subdivision. There are also sales of properties with similar relationships between land and building areas, but because of the placement of the house and/or its outbuildings, subdivision is not possible. In surrendering the right to subdivide, the owner is surrendering some portion of the $300,000 contribution to total value. Although the extra land cannot be subdivided under the terms of the easement, it still contributes to the property as gardens and buffer land. Comparison of sales of similar residential properties that cannot be subdivided because of their placement on the land or because of easements demonstrates a value for the property if subdivision is prohibited of $700,000. The easement provision prohibiting subdivision has created a $100,000 diminution in the value of the property, or one-third of the contribution of the extra land to the value of the property in the pre-easement case.

The easement also prohibits changes to the appearance of the land and building. Because change is so prevalent in the history of properties, we can assume that change is often desired by property owners. Property owners normally have freedom of choice as to additions, paint colors, types of window replacements, removal and/or replacement of trim elements, and such. The pleasure of property ownership consists partly in the exercise of this freedom, whether or not the property is historic. In surrendering this freedom of choice, the owner is giving up a traditional right, one that we cannot assume she or he would not exercise were the easement not in place.

Direct comparison with sales of properties so encumbered is the best basis for determining the appropriate loss of value If sales of encumbered properties are not available, the appraiser must estimate the effect of this prohibition on the market value of the property. It can be assumed that given the choice between two identical properties, one free of any easement and the other encumbered with an easement prohibiting changes, any knowledgeable buyer would prefer the unencumbered property and would therefore be willing to buy the encumbered one only at a lower price.

In addition to the prohibition on change, many preservation easements require the property owner to maintain the property to certain standards. Again, this reduces the owner's freedom of choice and requires him or her to carry out maintenance on a regular basis to the easement holder's specifications. The annual additional costs of a maintenance requirement can be calculated by the appraiser and capitalized as a penalty to value.

The combination of the maintenance requirement and the prohibition of substantive changes to the exterior appearance of the property will have a negative effect on value because it reduces the number of buyers who are willing to purchase the property at a price equal to that of an unencumbered property of otherwise equal qualities. If the appraiser has calculated the present worth of the extra maintenance costs over the foreseeable future at $10,000 and the diminution in sale price due to the prohibition on changes to the facade at 5 percent of the before value of the property (5 percent of $800,000) the total reduction in value due to these two provisions is $50,000. Combined with the $100,000 loss in value occasioned by the subdivision prohibition, these diminutions reduce the value of the property from $800,000 to $650,000.

Most preservation easements contain many different provisions, some of which will have little effect on the market value of the property. For instance, a prohibition on placing billboards on the property may have no effect on the value of the property if no one in the area would place a billboard on the property anyway. The negative effects of easements should be consistent at all times with the market's response to the easement presence.

For a complete discussion of easement valuation, you may with to consult *Appraising Easements: Guidelines for Valuation of Historic Preservation and Land Conservation Easements* published in 1990 by the Land Trust Alliance and the National Trust for Historic Preservation. It is available from the Land Trust Alliance, 1319 F Street N.W., Suite 501, Washington, D.C. 20004-1106 (202) 638-4725. The cost is $17 with a $3 shipping and handling charge.

Acknowledgements

This *Information* booklet was written by Judith Reynolds, a former principal in the appraisal firm of Reynolds and Reynolds, Inc., located in Washington, D.C. She has specialized over a 25-year career in the appraisal of historic properties and preservation and conservation easements.

Resources

The Appraisal Institute, an organization of professional real estate appraisers, publishes real estate appraisal literature and offers an extensive educational appraisal curriculum.
The Appraisal Institute also publishes the *Appraisal Journal*, a quarterly magazine. For more information contact the Appraisal Institute, 875 N. Michigan Avenue, Suite 2400, Chicago, Ill. 60611 (312) 335-4100.

Historic Properties: Preservation and the Evaluation Process provides an in-depth look at the issues surrounding historic properties. Written by Judith Reynolds and published in 1982 the book is available for $17 plus $3.50 shipping and handling from the Appraisal Institute.

The American Society of Appraisers is a multidisciplinary society that teaches, tests and accredits appraisers.
For more information contact the American Society of Appraisers, 535 Herndon Parkway, Herndon, Va. 22070 (703) 478-2228.

The National Association of Independent Fee Appraisers (NAIFA) is a full service nonprofit trade association. NAIFA is dedicated to fostering excellence in the profession and to helping NAIFA appraisers meet their career goals. For more information contact the National Association of Independent Fee Appraisers, 7501 Murdoch Avenue, St. Louis, Mo. 63119 (314) 781-6688.

The National Trust for Historic Preservation has available a wide variety of information on historic preservation. *Historic Preservation* magazine, published 10 times a year, includes a classified section of historic properties for sale. The Historic Real Estate Program is a membership program for real estate companies that provides realtors with information and training to assist owners and buyers of historic buildings. For more information contact: National Trust for Historic Preservation 1785 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036.

Notes

1. Chicago, Illinois: The Appraisal Institute, 1992
2. Also published by The Appraisal Institute.
3. by Justices Rehnquist, Burger, and Stevens.
4. Title XI of the Financial Institutions Reform, Recovery, and Enforcement Act of 1989 is the source of this mandate.
5. Although states are encouraged by a federal oversight committee to be consistent, they are free to enact legislation with some variation in these categories.
6. Land may be historic because of structures that once existed on it.
7. At the same time some of the most significant properties in the country are designated National Historic Landmarks, based on their relationship to one or more of nine themes ranging from the earliest inhabitants of the country through major American wars and social and humanitarian movements. National Historic Sites are of similar significance but are limited to properties administered by the National Park Service.
8. Various terms such as fair value, reasonable value, true value, cash value are used by courts, assessors, state governments, mortgage lenders, etc.; they are all usually defined to include the same set of hypothetical conditions.
9. Such an appraisal must conform to the conditions of the Departure Provision of the Uniform Standards, that is, first, the appraiser must determine that the scope of the assignment is not so limited as to mislead the intended users of the report; secondly, the appraiser must advise the client that the assignment calls for something less than the work required by the specific guidelines and that the report will clearly identify and explain the departure; and thirdly, the client must agree that the limited appraisal service is appropriate.
10. The appraiser must establish the situations in which the report is to be used and ensure that the client understands the limited utility of the Restricted Report; in addition the appraiser is required to establish and maintain a complete appraisal file that documents everything that would be included in a Self-Contained appraisal report.

The mission of the National Trust for Historic Preservation is to foster an appreciation of the diverse character and meaning of our American cultural heritage and to preserve and revitalize the livability of our communities by leading the nation in saving America's historic environments.

Support for the National Trust is provided in part by matching grants from the U.S. Department of the Interior, National Park Service, under provisions of the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966. The opinions expressed in this publication are not necessarily those of the U.S. Department of the Interior.

JOIN THE HISTORIC PRESERVATION NETWORK

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National Trust for Historic Preservation
1785 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036
(202) 673-4296

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1785 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036
(202) 673-4296

Mid-Atlantic Office
One Penn Center at Suburban Station
Suite 1520
1617 John F. Kennedy Boulevard
Philadelphia, Pa. 19103-1815
(215) 568-8162
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Boston, Mass. 02109
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Southern Office
William Aiken House
456 King Street
Charleston, S.C. 29403
(803) 722-8552
(Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee)

Mountains/Plains Office
910 16th Street, Suite 1100
Denver, Colo. 80202
(303) 623-1504
(Colorado, Kansas, Montana, Nebraska, North Dakota, Oklahoma, South Dakota, Wyoming)

Texas/New Mexico Field Office
500 Main Street, Suite 606
Fort Worth, Tex. 76102
(817) 332-4398
(New Mexico, Texas)

Western Office
One Sutter Street, Suite 707
San Francisco, Calif. 94104
(415) 956-0610
(Alaska, Arizona, California, Guam, Hawaii, Idaho, Micronesia, Nevada, Oregon, Utah, Washington)

APPENDIX 2.
HISTORIC SURVEY INFORMATION FOR ENCAMPMENT PLANTATION

South Carolina Statewide Survey Site Form

State Historic Preservation Office
P.O. Box 11669 • Columbia • SC • 29211 • (803) 734-8609

IDENTIFICATION

1. Control Number U / 19 / 0000 / 2480734 00 2. NR Microfiche index # _____
   county / census designated place / site #
3. Historic name(s): Encampment Plantation, House
4. Common name: _____
5. Address/location: 8864 Highway 17
   City: Parkers Ferry Vicinity of: Adams Run County: Charleston TMS: 50-0-0-19

6. Ownership: private (1) city (2) county (3) state (4) federal (5)
7. Category: building (1) site (2) structure (3) object (4)
8. Historic use(s): single dwelling (1) multi dwelling (2) commercial (3) other (0)
9. Current use(s): single dwelling (1) multi dwelling (2) commercial (3) other (0)
10. Potential: NR(1) NR historic district (2) archaeological (3)
11. Status/date: listed individually in National Register __/__/__ name _____

__listed as part of NR historic district __/__/__ Name of district _____
__contributing __non-contributing
__listed individually National Historic Landmark __/__/__
__determined eligible—owner objection __/__/__
__determined NOT eligible __/__/__
__deferred by review board __/__/__
__rejected by Washington __/__/__
__pending federal nomination __/__/__
__completed Preliminary Information Sheet (PIS) __/__/__
__part of NHL district __/__/__
__DOE process __/__/__
__rejected by review board __/__/__
__removed from NR __/__/__
__removed from survey __/__/__
__demolished __/__/__
__nomination on file/never processed __/__/__

12. Number of contributing properties: _____

PROPERTY DESCRIPTION: *When other (0) is chosen, enter data on reverse side under category 20 or 21.*

13. Construction Date 1930c 14. Alteration Date _____ 15. Architectural style or influence _____

16. Commercial Form — circle appropriate response(s)

A) 2-part commercial block
B) 1-part commercial block
C) enframed window wall
D))stacked vertical block
E) 2-part vertical block
F) 3-part vertical block
G) temple front
H) vault
I) enframed block
J) Central block w/wings
K) arcaded block
0) other

17. DESCRIPTION: *Select as many responses as appropriate.*

A) HISTORIC CORE SHAPE
rectangular (1)
square (2)
L (3)
T (4)
U (5)
H (6)
octagonal (7)
irregular (8)
other (0)

B) STORIES
1 story (1)
1 1/2 stories (2)
2 stories (3)
2 1/2 stories (4)
3 stories (5)
other (0)

C) PORCH HEIGHT
1 story (1)
1 story w/deck (2)
2 or more stories (3)
2 or more with tiers (4)
roofed balcony over 1 story hip/shed (5)
other (0)

D) ROOF SHAPE
gable (end to front) (1)
gable (lateral) (2)
hip (3)
cross gable (4)
pyramidal (5)
flat (6)
truncated hip (7)
gambrel (8)
mansard (9)
salt box (10)
jerkinhead (11)
gable-on-hip (12)
mono-pitch (14)
not visible (15)
other (0)

E) PORCH WIDTH
entrance bay only (1)
over 1 bay, less than full facade (2)
full facade (3)
facade & left elevation (4)
facade & right elevation (5)
facade & both elevations (6)
other (0)

F) PORCH ROOF SHAPE
shed (1)
hip (2)
gable (3)
pedimented gable (4)
flat (5)
engaged (6)
partially engaged (7)
gable-on-hip or shed (8)
engaged porte cochere (9)
other (0)

G) NUMBER OF CHIMNEYS
__exterior (1)
__interior end (2)
__interior (3)
__central (4)
__flue (5)
__double shouldered (6)
__not visible (7)
__other (0)

H) WINDOWS
single (1)
double (2)
tripartite (3)
grouped (4)
decorative (5)
display (6)
other (0)

I) PANE CONFIGURATION
traceried (1)
Queen Anne block-glass (2)
Prairie/bungalow/craftsman geometric (3)
not visible (4)
other (0)
6/6 __/__

J) DOORS
single (1)
__double (2)
transom (3)
fanlight (4)
sidelights (5)
other (0)

9/8

K) CONSTRUCTION METHOD
masonry (1)
frame (2)
log (3)
steel (4)
other (0)

L) EXTERIOR WALLS
weatherboard (1)
beaded weatherboard (2)
shiplap (3)
flushboard (4)
wood shingle (5)
stucco (6)
tabby (7)
brick (8)
brick veneer (9)
stone veneer (10)
cast-stone (11)
marble (12)
asphalt roll (13)
synthetic siding (14)
asbestos shingle (15)
pigmented structural glass (16)
other (0)

M) PORCH DETAILS
chamfered posts (1)
turned posts (2)
supports on pedestals (3)
columns (4)
posts (5)
piers (6)
pillars (7)
freestanding posts (8)
balustrade (9)
apron wall (10)
turned balusters (11)
decorative sawn balusters (12)
slat balusters (13)
other sawn/turned work (14)
insect screening (15)
porte cochere (16)
other (0)

N) CHIMNEY MATERIAL
brick (1)
stuccoed brick (2)
stone (3)
brick & stone (4)
other (0)

O) ROOF MATERIAL
composition shingle (1)
pressed metal shingle (2)
wood shingle (3)
slate (4)
raised seam metal (5)
other metal (6)
rolled roofing (7)
not visible (8)
tile (9)
other (0)

P) FOUNDATION
not visible (1)
brick pier (2)
brick pier with fill (3)
brick (4)
stuccoed masonry (5)
stone pier (6)
stone (7)
concrete block (8)
slab construction (9)
basement (10)
raised basement (11)
other (0)

Q) DECORATIVE ELEMENT MATERIAL
cast iron (1)
pressed metal (2)
terra cotta (3)
granite (4)
marble (5)
cast stone (6)
brick (7)
wood (8)
pigmented glass (9)
stone (10)
stucco (11)
other (0)

R) INTERIOR FEATURES (list)

_____

_____

_____

_____

18. HISTORIC OUTBUILDINGS AND STRUCTURES:

none (1)
none visible (2)
garage (3)
garage w/living area (4)
shed (5)
kitchen (6)
tenant house (7)
other house (8)
office (9)
barn (10)
tobacco barn (11)
dairy (12)
crib (13
smokehouse (14)
slave house (15)
privy (16)
well (17)
springhouse (18)
store (19)
windmill (20)
chicken coop (21)
silo (22)
washhouse (23)
root cellar (24)
other (0)

19. SURROUNDINGS: residential (1) residential/commercial(2) commercial (3) rural (4) rural community (5) industrial (6) other (0)

20. ADDITIONAL DESCRIPTIVE COMMENTS: Small lateral gable projection at left elevation.

21. ALTERATIONS M: piers appear to be ca. 1960 alteration.

HISTORICAL INFORMATION

22. Theme(s): _____ **23. Period(s):** _____ **24. Important persons:** _____

25. Architect(s): _____ Source: _____

26. Builder(s) _____ Source: _____

27. Historical data The name Encampment Plantation is said to have been given to this property after 1792, when American forces camped here as they guarded the road from Charleston to Jacksonboro Ferry while the South Carolina General Assembly met at Jacksonboro.

28. Informant/Bibliography John H. Boineau, interview 22 April 1992.

PROGRAM MANAGEMENT

29. Quadrangle name: Jacksonboro **30. Photographs:** prints (1) slides (2) negatives (3)

31. Other documentation: survey back-up files (1) National Register files (2) tax act files (3) grant files (4) state historical marker files (5) environmental review files (6) HABS/HAER (7) SCIAA (8) other (0)_____ #_____

32. Recorder name/firm Preservation Consultants/SF **33. Date recorded** 6/23/92

South Carolina Statewide Survey Site Form
CONTINUATION AND PHOTOGRAPHS

Control Number U / 19 / 0000 / 2480734 . 00
county / census designated place / site #

Continuation:

18: barn directly to rear (north) of house: front gable main core with row of stalls in shed extension at right elevation. Tenant house: .2 mile south of house, at east side of oak avenue: ca. 1930, three bay wide shiplap residence with lateral gable roof, shed portico at entry.

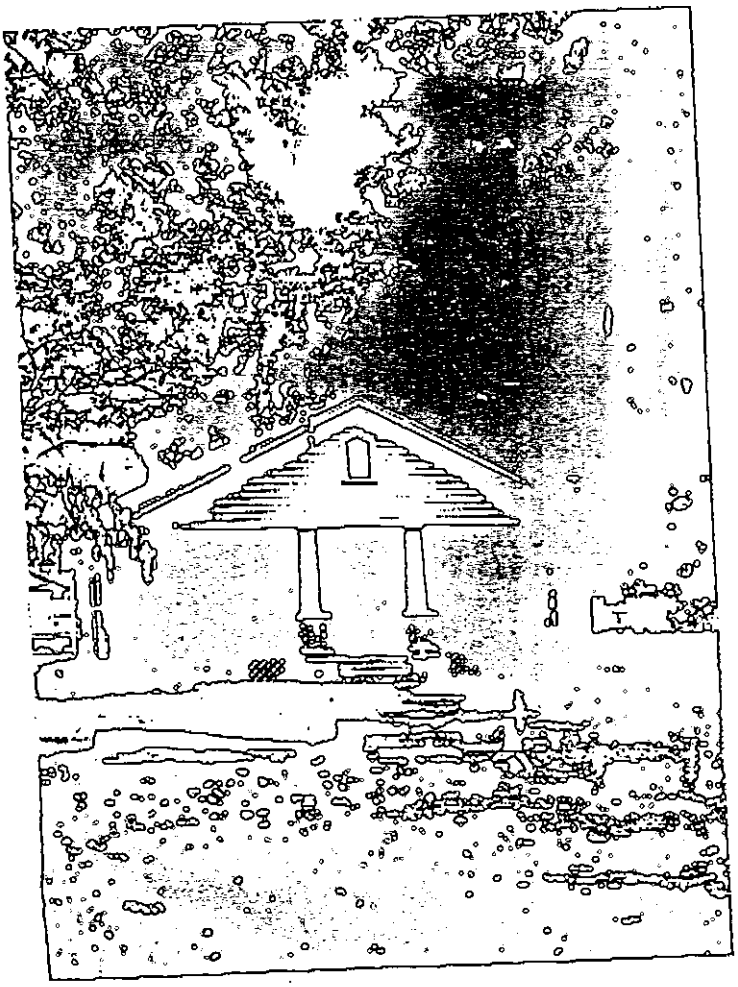

Photo #	Photo Index #	View of	N, S, E, W
1		Facade & Left	S, W

Date Taken/Recorded by: Preservation Consultants, sf/ 6/23/92

South Carolina Statewide Survey Site Form
State Historic Preservation Office
P.O. Box 11669 • Columbia • SC • 29211 • (803) 734-8609

IDENTIFICATION

1. Control Number U / 19 / 0000 / 2480734 01 (county / census designated place / site #) 2. NR Microfiche Index # _____
3. Historic name(s): Encampment Plantation, Oak Avenue and Cemetery
4. Common name: _____
5. Address/location: 8864 Highway 17
City: Parkers Ferry Vicinity of: Adams Run County: Charleston TMS: 50-0-0-19

6. Ownership: private (1) city (2) county (3) state (4) federal (5)
7. Category: building (1) site (2) structure (3) object (4)
8. Historic use(s): single dwelling (1) multi dwelling (2) commercial (3) other (0)
9. Current use(s): single dwelling (1) multi dwelling (2) commercial (3) other (0)
10. Potential: NR(1) NR historic district (2) archaeological (3)
11. Status/date: listed individually in National Register __/__/__ name _____
__listed as part of NR historic district __/__/__ Name of district _____
__contributing __non-contributing
__listed individually National Historic Landmark __/__/__
__determined eligible—owner objection __/__/__
__determined NOT eligible __/__/__
__deferred by review board __/__/__
__rejected by Washington __/__/__
__pending federal nomination __/__/__
__completed Preliminary Information Sheet (PIS) __/__/__
__part of NHL district __/__/__
__DOE process __/__/__
__rejected by review board __/__/__
__removed from NR __/__/__
__removed from survey __/__/__
__demolished __/__/__
__nomination on file/never processed __/__/__

12. Number of contributing properties: _____

PROPERTY DESCRIPTION: *When other (0) is chosen, enter data on reverse side under category 20 or 21.*

13. Construction Date 1825c 14. Alteration Date _____ 15. Architectural style or influence _____

16. Commercial Form — circle appropriate response(s)

A) 2-part commercial block
B) 1-part commercial block
C) enframed window wall
D) stacked vertical block
E) 2-part vertical block
F) 3-part vertical block
G) temple front
H) vault
I) enframed block
J) Central block w/wings
K) arcaded block
0) other

17. DESCRIPTION: *Select as many responses as appropriate.*

A) HISTORIC CORE SHAPE
rectangular (1)
square (2)
L (3)
T (4)
U (5)
H (6)
octagonal (7)
irregular (8)
other (0)

B) STORIES
1 story (1)
1 1/2 stories (2)
2 stories (3)
2 1/2 stories (4)
3 stories (5)
other (0)

C) PORCH HEIGHT
1 story (1)
1 story w/deck (2)
2 or more stories (3)
2 or more with tiers (4)
roofed balcony over 1 story hip/shed (5)

D) ROOF SHAPE
gable (end to front) (1)
gable (lateral) (2)
hip (3)
cross gable (4)
pyramidal (5)
flat (6)
truncated hip (7)
gambrel (8)
mansard (9)
salt box (10)
jerkinhead (11)
gable-on-hip (12)
mono-pitch (14)
not visible (15)
other (0)

E) PORCH WIDTH
entrance bay only (1)
over 1 bay, less than full facade(2)
full facade (3)
facade & left elevation (4)
facade & right elevation (5)
facade & both elevations (6)
other (0)

F) PORCH ROOF SHAPE
shed (1)
hip (2)
gable (3)
pedimented gable (4)
flat (5)
engaged (6)
partially engaged (7)
gable-on-hip or shed (8)
engaged porte cochere (9)
other (0)

G) NUMBER OF CHIMNEYS
___exterior (1)
___interior end (2)
___interior (3)
___central (4)
___flue (5)
___double shouldered (6)
___not visible (7)
___other (0)

H) WINDOWS
single (1)
double (2)
tripartite (3)
grouped (4)
decorative (5)
display (6)
other (0)

I) PANE CONFIGURATION
traceried (1)
Queen Anne block-glass (2)
Prairie/bungalow/craftsman geometric (3)
not visible (4)
other (0)
___/___, ___/___

J) DOORS
__single (1)
__double (2)
transom (3)
fanlight (4)
sidelights (5)
other (0)

K) CONSTRUCTION METHOD
masonry (1)
frame (2)
log (3)
steel (4)
other (0)

L) EXTERIOR WALLS
weatherboard (1)
beaded weatherboard (2)
shiplap (3)
flushboard (4)
wood shingle (5)
stucco (6)
rubby (7)
brick (8)
brick veneer (9)
stone veneer (10)
cast-stone (11)
marble (12)
asphalt roll (13)
synthetic siding (14)
asbestos shingle (15)
pigmented structural glass(16)
other (0)

M) PORCH DETAILS
chamfered posts (1)
turned posts (2)
supports on pedestals (3)
columns (4)
posts (5)
piers (6)
pillars (7)
freestanding posts (8)
balustrade (9)
apron wall (10)
turned balusters (11)
decorative sawn balusters (12)
slat balusters (13)
other sawn/turned work (14)
insect screening (15)
porte cochere (16)
other (0)

N) CHIMNEY MATERIAL
brick (1)
stuccoed brick (2)
stone (3)
brick & stone (4)
other (0)

O) ROOF MATERIAL
composition shingle (1)
pressed metal shingle (2)
wood shingle (3)
slate (4)
raised seam metal (5)
other metal (6)
rolled roofing (7)
not visible (8)
tile (9)
other (0)

P) FOUNDATION
not visible (1)
brick pier (2)
brick pier with fill (3)
brick (4)
stuccoed masonry (5)
stone pier (6)
stone (7)
concrete block (8)
slab construction (9)
basement (10)
raised basement (11)
other (0)

Q) DECORATIVE ELEMENT MATERIAL
cast iron (1)
pressed metal (2)
terra cotta (3)
granite (4)
marble (5)
cast stone (6)
brick (7)
wood (8)
pigmented glass (9)
stone (10)
stucco (11)
other (0)

R) INTERIOR FEATURES (list)

_____

_____

_____

_____

18. HISTORIC OUTBUILDINGS AND STRUCTURES:

none (1)
none visible (2)
garage (3)
garage w/living area (4)
shed (5)
kitchen (6)
tenant house (7)
other house (8)
office (9)
barn (10)
tobacco barn (11)
dairy (12)
crib (13
smokehouse (14)
slave house (15)
privy (16)
well (17)
springhouse (18)
store (19)
windmill (20)
chicken coop (21)
silo (22)
washhouse (23)
root cellar (24)
other (0)

19. SURROUNDINGS: residential (1) residential/commercial(2) commercial (3) rural (4) rural community (5) industrial (6) other (0)

20. ADDITIONAL DESCRIPTIVE COMMENTS: Approximately 2/10 mile long double line of live oak trees leading to ca. 1930 house. Cemetery not accessible; about .4 mile north of house at the edge of Caw Caw Swamp.

21. ALTERATIONS _____

HISTORICAL INFORMATION

22. Theme(s): _____ **23. Period(s):** _____ **24. Important persons:** _____

25. Architect(s): _____ Source: _____

26. Builder(s) _____ Source: _____

27. Historical data Robert Mills' Atlas of 1826 shows a residence "Haine" [Hayne?] at approximatel this location. Encampment and the adjacent Battlefield Plantation have been historically own by the Fox family; in 1899 1000+ acres of Battlefield were leased to a phosphate mining compa

28. Informant/Bibliography Mills Atlas, Colleton District; Kollock's Property Map, 1932-34; "Battlefield Plantation," (undated MS, BCD Council of Governments files)

PROGRAM MANAGEMENT

29. Quadrangle name: Jacksonboro **30. Photographs:** print (1) slides (2) negatives (3)

31. Other documentation: survey back-up files (1) National Register files (2) tax act files (3) grant files (4) state historical marker files (5) environmental review files (6) HABS/HAER (7) SCIAA (8) other (0) _____ # _____

32. Recorder name/firm Preservation Consultants/SF **33. Date recorded** 6/23/92

South Carolina Statewide Survey Site Form
CONTINUATION AND PHOTOGRAPHS

Control Number U / 19 / 0000 / 2480734 . 01
county / census designated place / site #

Continuation:
8 & 9: other: oak avenue; cemetery.

Photo #	Photo Index #	View of	N, S, E, W
1		Oak Allee, Facing South	

Date Taken/Recorded by: Preservation Consultants; sf/ 6/23/92